Studies in Child Development

Residential Child Care

Facts and Fallacies

Rosemary Dinnage
M. L. Kellmer Pringle

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Titles in this series
Four Years On
11,000 Seven Year Olds
Adoption—Facts and Fallacies
Family Advice Services
Foster Home Care—Facts and Fallacies
Residential Child Care—Facts and Fallacies
The Community's Children

The National Bureau for Co-operation in Child Care

Residential Child Care
Facts and Fallacies

A Review of Research
in the United States,
Western Europe, Israel and Great Britain
between 1948 and 1966

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and
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Foreword

This volume on substitute care is a welcome addition to the international literature in the field of child welfare. It is a worthy companion of the four foregoing volumes on child development published by the National Bureau for Co-operation in Child Care; *Four Years On*, a follow-up study of children at school leaving age; *Adoption—Facts and Fallacies*, a review of research in the United States, Canada, and Great Britain, between 1948 and 1965; *Family Advice Services*; and 11,000 *Seven-Year-Olds*, a unique national survey of children's education, health, and development. Each is unique in that it explores, in some depth, one or more aspects of the child welfare field via selected studies and surveys.

This volume reviews material not only from the U.S.A. and Britain, as did the other volumes, but also from a portion of Europe and Israel as well. Great care and skill have been exercised by the staff of the National Bureau both in the selection of material and in its analysis. The Bureau is fully aware of the hazards involved in attempting to judge the character and quality of a service in any country via its professional literature and recorded research findings alone. Indeed, no attempt is made to evaluate but rather to report what is reflected in the work of some of the most reliable and representative authors.

It is high time that we began to look at child care in its totality in both the functional and geographical sense. Adequate care within the natural home, in a foster family, in a residential unit, or in adoption are of equal importance—the constant factor is the child himself, and our services should be arranged in such a way that he can move from one to the other without difficulty and with minimal detriment. Professional people have an obligation to define 'adequate care' no matter what the setting and learn how to make known to the concerned public precisely what is meant by that term. Thus, bench marks could eventually be established to which any country could aspire.

It is equally important for parents, teachers, and social workers of every country to think of children in the generic as well as the specific sense. That is, all children are the concern of all people.

Every culture has something of importance to contribute to an international 'pool' on methods of child care and nurture. In New Guinea, for example, the compound or group of families, throws a protective network around all its children, no matter who the parents may be. The Scandinavian countries and the Netherlands have devised a wide variety of unique residential treatment facilities; the day nurseries of Turkey and Austria are of special interest; and the support of children in their homes in the instance of death or desertion of either parent is an accepted part of the national programme in several countries.

National boundaries should no longer block the easy flow of information and assistance between and among countries. Scholarly and practical work such as this and its companion volumes will do much to facilitate exchange of ideas, methods, and philosophy and gradually build an awareness among all people of the essential universality of both purpose and method in the rearing of the young.

LEONARD W. MAYO, *President, International Union of Child Welfare and Professor of Human Development, Colby College, Waterville, Maine, U.S.A.*

Acknowledgements

We should like to record our gratitude to the Home Office for granting financial support to enable the Bureau to undertake a review of certain fields of child care; this volume forms part of that larger enquiry. It would be too long to list all the organisations, statutory and voluntary, who responded to our postal enquiry regarding ongoing or unpublished research; it is thanks to their help that our lists are as complete as they are; individual research workers, too, were very generous in giving of their time to supply the information which was being sought.

In an enquiry of this kind the service of libraries is essential in tracing original sources and obtaining material for first-hand scrutiny. We are particularly indebted to the libraries of the London School of Economics, the University of London, and the Tavistock Institute of Human Relations. Generous help was also received from several university libraries in the United States, particularly Bryn Mawr, the Catholic University of America, Columbia, Fordham and Smith, as well as from the Library of the Child Welfare League of America.

Among the many organisations abroad who helped with the compilation of the foreign language material and who answered queries, the following must be mentioned: the Centre Internationale de l'Enfance; the Hebrew University of Jerusalem; the Henrietta Szold Institute; the International Bureau of Education; the National Bureau voor Kinderbescherming; Tel-Aviv University; the United Nations Division of Social Affairs; the World Health Organisation; and Youth Aliyah.

The generous assistance given by the International Union for Child Welfare must be given special mention: not only were the Librarian's services put at our disposal to help with enquiries, both by correspondence and during a visit to Geneva, but also during the latter event Mrs Dinnage was freely offered accommodation and staff assistance.

To give some help to Mrs Dinnage with the task of abstracting we enlisted the co-operation of Miss Robina Addis; Miss U. Michaelson, West Germany; Mr Dan Phillipp, Israel; Mr A. Pinsent; and Mr T. G. Randall. Their invaluable help is gratefully acknowledged. Critical comments on the first four chapters were invited from the following:

Alderman Mrs G. Buxton, Mr John Croft, Mr John Elvidge, Mr A. A. Jacka, Dr Roy Parker, Mr T. G. Randall and Miss P. Whiffen, as well as from the staff of the Home Office Children's Department and Research Unit. The time devoted by them to reading through the manuscript and their constructive comments were much appreciated.

Now to turn to our own staff: the overall framework and pattern of organisation, developed by the senior author for the first volume in this series of reviews (*Adoption—Facts and Fallacies*), have been followed in the preparation of this book. Mrs Dinnage undertook most of the abstracting and all the bibliographical and administrative work; she was also responsible for the detailed sifting and arrangement of the material, and wrote the first three chapters. Mr Stan Gooch contributed to the planning stage and to the early collection of material; and Miss Diana Ware gave throughout most conscientious help on the secretarial side.

The planning and direction of the whole project was the responsibility of the senior author, who also wrote Chapter 4 and did the final editing. The views and judgments expressed in the first four chapters are personal and cannot be assumed to be shared by either the Home Office or by the National Bureau for Co-operation in Child Care.

M. L. K. P.

1. Aims and Methods

1. Aims

This volume is part of a larger project sponsored by the Home Office, namely surveying the research and literature on substitute care of certain kinds for children unable to live with their own families. The first volume, on adoption, has already been published.[1] For all the reviews the year of the Children Act 1948 was the starting point. As in the first volume of the series, the aim of this book on residential care and its companion volume, *Foster Home Care—Facts and Fallacies*, is to disseminate research findings and references as widely as possible to both professional and lay readers; to bring together theory, research and practice in child care; and to provide a basis for reviewing present policy and practice, as well as for planning future research. At the same time it is hoped that the publication of the series is furthering one of the main purposes of the National Bureau, namely to link together knowledge from different professional disciplines concerned with children and to make this knowledge available to as many people as possible.

The emphasis of these two books, however, differs somewhat from that of the first. While adoption—only technically 'substitute' care—is closest to natural family life and therefore generally considered the best alternative, it affects only some 20,000 children each year, less than a third of the number annually in the care of local authorities. A large proportion of children received into care are there for only a short time, but the remainder constitute a serious social responsibility which shows no sign of decreasing. While adoption research is basically concerned with the outcome of experiences within the family, child care is inseparable from its social and administrative background: the conditions which bring children into public care, prevention of family breakdown, administration of the service, and training of staff. To those concerned with adoption it is a very personal and often emotionally-tinged subject where prejudice still lingers; in child care more facts and figures are

[1] *Adoption—Facts and Fallacies*, by M. L. Kellmer Pringle with M. Dewdney, E. Crellin and R. Dinnage. Longmans, in association with the National Bureau for Co-operation in Child Care, London, 1966.

available, theory is surprisingly consistent over the years and between different countries, and the problems are urgently practical ones. The emphasis is on society's collective responsibility for those in need.

2. Methods used to obtain material

The same methods of finding and presenting material have been used in these two volumes as in the earlier one; with the difference that the literature of French- and German-speaking Europe and of Israel has been included as well as British and American work. This, of course, has presented considerable practical difficulties, and no claim is made that the child care writings of these countries are fully represented; but it is hoped that enough interesting work has been included to justify the attempt and to stimulate further interchanges of ideas.

For the English and American work two main sources were used to collect the material to be reviewed: firstly, journals, bibliographies and reference volumes; and secondly, replies to a postal questionnaire circulated by the National Bureau to local authorities, universities, voluntary societies and other organisations concerned with children's care and welfare. Inter-library loans made theses and books available for abstracting. Tracing and abstracting foreign work was more difficult. It was decided that, from Europe, only work in French and German could be usefully covered, and that foreign language bibliographies should be brief. Work from Israel was included because of the special problems of the child care service there and because of their fairly large body of research literature, some of which is in English. With help and advice from several welfare organisations abroad, two abstracters were eventually found, in Israel and in Germany, to make searches and prepare abstracts and a bibliography; it is to them that we owe the contributions from these two countries. French-language work was read and abstracted into English at the National Bureau, with the help of the International Union for Child Welfare in Geneva, who had provided information and access to their multilingual library.

Material published after December 1966 is not included, with one exception: the National Council of Social Service kindly made available the manuscript of their report on the staffing of residential Homes, and the findings have been included because of the importance of the report and the scarcity of research in this area.

3. Presentation of the material

Whenever possible, research studies have been abstracted; work which was slight, of marginal relevance, or work from abroad which could not be obtained, is only listed in the bibliographies. In all but a very few cases abstracts were made directly from the original material. The

line between research and other writing is not hard-and-fast, but in general the bibliographies contain non-research material—articles, handbooks, reports and discussions; again, in nearly every case the original was given, lent, photocopied or read in a library, so that an annotation could be added for readers' guidance. Where research exists in both unpublished and published form, abstracts were made from whichever source was clearest or most accessible, and alternative sources listed in the bibliography. The volume of child care literature proved to be so large that the bibliographies have been made reasonably selective; entries have been included partly according to length and substantiality, partly according to recency and relevance. Articles, even if slight, which have some concrete and practical points to make (such as those written by or for residential staff) have been included, as have accounts of child care work in other countries—to supplement the international aspect of the review. Work done in this country has been covered more exhaustively than work from other countries, including the U.S.A. The bibliographies are completed by a list of research projects in progress at the time of going to press. For this country, the list was compiled from a questionnaire sent out by the National Bureau (Appendix II); the list of current American research, mainly compiled from Bulletins on research relating to children issued by the United States Children's Bureau, cannot claim to be comprehensive in covering all relevant research in progress in the U.S.A. Nor has it been attempted to trace ongoing research in the European countries or Israel.

Problems of selection have loomed large in the editing of the books; the major one has been to stay within the limits of our subject matter: that is, substitute care for children deprived of family life, but *not* specialised care which is indicated mainly by the child's particular needs, such as residence in special boarding-schools, hostels, Approved Schools or in any other institution run specially for the handicapped, maladjusted or delinquent. That this is often an artificial distinction is known to all in the child care field; and those working in specialised fields often have especially valuable insights to contribute. Nevertheless, boundary lines had to be drawn for practical reasons, and it is hoped that other types of residential care not included in these volumes may be covered in future reviews. Many references to work in areas adjacent to the field of child care proper will be found in the bibliographies of studies included here.

Again, separating residential from foster care has involved making an artificial distinction; but wherever abstracts or references are relevant to both kinds of care they are included in both volumes. Cross-references have also been used wherever there was an overlap. Research on communal upbringing in Israel's Kibbutzim (farming communities) has been brought together here for the first time, with its documentation, not because such upbringing is believed to be depriving or closely comparable to the life of children in residential care, but because the

research, not widely known, throws an interesting light on community care of a very different kind.

It has been difficult to make decisions about work which is important but only peripherally relevant to the subject of children in care, such as studies of 'problem families' and preventive work. A number of references have been included, and more can be found in the bibliographies of the books themselves. Writings on the training of *child care* staff of all kinds have been included, but not on general training for social work, since this would have increased the bibliography enormously. Finally, the location of nearly all the work abstracted or listed is given; the location of the journals consulted is given in an appendix, and most of the research accounts are available for study in the National Bureau's library.

Summary of material reviewed[1]

Type of review	*U.K.*	*U.S.A.*	*Israel*	*France, Belgium and French-speaking Switzerland*	*Germany and German-speaking Switzerland*	*International*	*Total*
Abstracts	33	33	6	13	6	1	92
Annotated bibliography	152	144	29	31	16	17	389
Ongoing research	24	11	—	—	—	—	35
						TOTAL	516

[1] Material is listed by country of publication rather than by subject; e.g. papers on child care in Israel, published in the U.S.A., are listed under U.S.A.

2. Review of Research

1. Introduction

Communal and foster family care for children are so closely connected that at times it is inevitably artificial to discuss them separately. When it became obvious, however, that the volume of literature on substitute care was too large to be contained in one volume, one advantage of the enforced division of subjects appeared: the debate over the superiority of one or other type of care will be avoided. This argument has raged to and fro for over a hundred years, with regular swings of opinion at intervals (Wolins and Piliavin, 1964; Ferguson, 1966). After the expansion of fostering in this country, following the research of Bowlby and others, there are now signs that the rate of fostering breakdowns and the shortage of suitable homes may be leading to another swing of the pendulum towards residential care. It is unlikely that research will ever succeed in measuring precisely the risks of fostering breakdown against the disadvantages of a residential environment; nor is there any certainty that fostering resources could be extended without considerable replanning; so it has been assumed that both forms of care will be necessary, and attention has been concentrated on what can be discovered about providing the *best* care in each case. (Both practice and research are inevitably discussed mainly from the point of view of the service in this country.)

This volume covers work on maternal deprivation in relation to residential care for young children, as well as studies of older children, staff, Homes and policies. The relevance of this and allied research to the communal care of children as it has been and as it could be will be discussed. Specific studies of foster care—children, parents, child care workers and placement policies—are reviewed, and their implications discussed in *Foster Home Care—Facts and Fallacies*. The two volumes of research reviews should therefore be more useful if read together.

2. Research on maternal deprivation in residential Homes

Controversy about maternal deprivation, based mainly on studies of young children in institutional care and used here in this sense, is already

over twenty years old and will be familiar to all concerned with child development and care. Ainsworth (1962) has made a detailed analysis and summary of the relevant research, and no attempt will be made to duplicate her work or to make a detailed report of her findings[1], which appear to be unshaken. However, research especially relevant to residential care for infants and children will be briefly discussed, including studies which have appeared since the publication of Ainsworth's review.

It may be useful first to set the maternal deprivation controversy in its historical context. The 'scientific' theories of child-rearing favoured earlier in the century, with their emphasis on physical hygiene and routine, arose in reaction to nineteenth-century standards of hygiene. Sheer rationality also suggested that the most efficient way of caring for the needy—increasingly seen as the responsibility of society—was to separate them into appropriate groups: the sick isolated in hospitals, the old in institutions of their own, parentless children in large communities. And so a probably unprecedented amount of officially approved separation was incorporated into the social policies of some civilized societies. Although the rightness of close mother-child interaction had been assumed by most societies, there was no research documenting the ill-effects of loneliness as there was connecting disease with poor hygiene. The observations which led to the early studies of maternal deprivation, therefore, whether faulty in detail or not, can be considered a breakthrough of a more genuinely scientific attitude than the limited one which recognised only the physical needs of children; and like many innovations which call into question current working arrangements, it has aroused counter-arguments, some of them more emotional than relevant. It will be the argument of this review that it may be time for those planning and caring for separated children finally to accept and assimilate the knowledge of 'damage' sustained by children, so that it is less a source of guilt and confusion than an incentive to make radical improvements in the standard of substitute care.

a. *Studies of infants and small children*

The early studies of Bowlby, Goldfarb, Spitz, Levy, Bakwin and others, which first presented the concept of maternal deprivation, are well

[1] Ainsworth concluded that: (1) recovery from a single brief separation will be fairly prompt, although possibly leaving a vulnerability to future stress; (2) relief from fairly prolonged deprivation in infancy may result in rapid improvement, although vocalization, and possibly other aspects of personality functioning, may be retarded; (3) severe deprivation beginning early and lasting for as long as three years usually has seriously adverse effects; (4) severe deprivation beginning in the second year of life also has serious effects, although the influence on intelligence may be reversible; (5) the age at onset and relief of deprivation are important, but a 'sensitive period' cannot as yet be precisely delineated; (6) in the first year, the earlier deprivation is relieved the better; after the first year, the later it starts the better; (7) language, the ability for abstract thinking, and capacity for affection seem to be more permanently affected than other functions; (8) intensive therapy undertaken early may reverse impairment; (9) subsequent stressful experience probably reinforces the effects of earlier deprivation.

known; and having been published before 1948 are outside the scope of this review. Perhaps less well known in this country are some early studies published in Europe. Roudinesco and Appell (1950) found striking differences between short-stay children aged one to three, and those who had been since birth in a residential nursery in France. Of the short-stay children 71% were found to be within the normal range of development when tested, compared to 13% of the permanently institutionalised children; 10% of the former group were seriously retarded, compared to 55% of the latter. Individual play sessions reduced retardation considerably, but language backwardness was hard to reverse. In their second study (1951) the authors made more detailed comparisons between groups separated from home at different ages and for different lengths of time. The mean Developmental Quotient of all nursery children was 25 points lower than that of controls living in their own homes, and became relatively lower with length of stay, falling to 31 points below controls at the lowest. A similar investigation was carried out in 1955 by Aubry (née Roudinesco), after improvements had been made in the care provided by the nursery, and the decline in Developmental Quotient was found to follow the same curve but to be rather less pronounced. Hege (1953) found maximum retardation among the older infants in a German nursery; motor development was normal, but speech and learning impaired. Stier (1963) also found 53% of small children in German institutions retarded in speech, restless and unsocialised. These early studies of young children in nurseries, all except Stier's carried out in the 1950s following on Bowlby's findings, are unanimous in finding retardation (especially in speech), either gross or considerable, according to the standard of care provided; and *some* indication, even at this early age, of atypical emotional development such as lack of curiosity, restlessness, and later, indiscriminate shallow friendliness to adults. No cases of marasmus and death, such as Spitz (1949) found, have been reported during the period under review. None of these studies of course relates to current or very recent conditions in residential nurseries.

More recent research on institutional care for younger children can be divided into three kinds: finer investigations regarding the kind and duration of its effects; observational studies of deprivation while it is in progress; and research on the effects of improving and 'enriching' the residential nursery environment. Though they provide many pointers to improvements in nursery care, they do not seriously undermine the conclusions of the earlier work.

Among the first group are Dennis's studies (1957 and 1960) of the development of both infants and children in institutions in the Middle East (it is perhaps encouraging that at these dates he had to travel so far to find the kind of severely depriving conditions that were first reported in the maternal deprivation literature). His investigation of children in Beirut supports Hege's findings that retardation is less evident

in early infancy and early childhood (after the age of three), and most evident in late infancy, since five-year-olds in the Foundling Home studied were less retarded than the infants of over three months (though still 10% below the norm for their age). In his second study he compared the motor development of children aged one to three from institutions giving poor and better care. The latter were much less retarded than the former; but even from the worst institution older children showed no sign of any remaining *motor* handicap. These two studies, though demonstrating what kinds of visible institutional retardation are least permanent, restrict themselves to the most technical aspects of both environment and behaviour, and provide no real proof of Dennis's conclusion that emotional factors are irrelevant. Schaffer (1965) also compared infants in two institutional environments and found that in a homelike nursery development progressed steadily, while in hospital it dropped rapidly but rose rapidly on return home. It is clear from these studies that the overt physical signs of deprivation in very young children can fluctuate, can be alleviated, and partly disappear with time in any case—since the children do eventually learn to walk and talk, and evidence of deprivation will then take a different form. There is a danger, however, of confusing these overt signs with total personality development. Family-reared children confined to plaster casts, for instance, must show motor retardation, partially deaf children language retardation; but their personality growth may nevertheless have been 'fed' and nurtured in many ways which are difficult to submit to analysis. It is the complexity of this 'feeding' interaction or nurturing which is ignored by the more superficial studies.

Four observational studies of deprivation in progress have attempted to focus on these qualitative aspects. The fullest account of long-term residential nursery care is given by Provence and Lipton (1962). As well as administering standard tests to infants in their first year in a nursery, they made detailed observations, discussed infants with nursery staff, and followed up some of the children after foster placement. As well as the lack of vocalising (unanimously reported in all these studies), they noted also a lack of specific response to individual adults, of varied facial expressions, of sustained interest in toys; and observe that retardation became even more marked as the children entered their second year. (Rheingold's (1961) findings that fourteen-week-old institutionalised infants were as responsive—or more so—than controls is not necessarily contradictory, as her sample had scarcely entered the period when retardation becomes observable.) It is unfortunate that on following up the children in foster homes when they were aged two to five years, Provence and Lipton give only impressions and speculations about their development, rather than any quantifiable data. They suggest that although the children were greatly improved in every way, there was still evidence of language retardation, shallow emotional expression, and unusually impulsive, inflexible behaviour.

Language deficiency at a slightly later age is described in more detail by Pringle and Tanner (1958). The speech of children in residential nurseries and a nursery school was compared in respect of quantity and quality, and it was observed that they used smaller vocabularies, more immature sentence formations, less fantasy and humour, fewer active words. Heinicke (1956) and Heinicke and Westheimer (1966) used an ingenious combination of intensive clinical and objective observations of the reactions of a small number of children just under two years old who entered residential nurseries for very short periods. Observations were also made during the children's return home, and (in some cases) at intervals during the subsequent two years. The studies agree in the picture of disturbance during and after the separation: crying, aggressive behaviour, loss of sphincter control, infections, and phobias—precisely the same clinical picture as that presented by Aubry (1955), and by David *et al.* (1957), who made a similar observational study of children receiving short-term care in France. In Heinicke's studies children staying longer than two weeks were found to be significantly more disturbed than the others. Some months after their return home they showed no overt signs of continuing disturbance, although there was a suggestion of vulnerability to further stress; their separations, moreover, had been very short, most had been visited by parents, and the continuing presence of the research workers (one of whom gave casework support to mothers during the second study) may have provided another source of continuity. As a close-up of what very young children experience during the first days and weeks of separation these studies are unique, although they differ from most studies included in this section by focusing on the separation experience rather than on the quality of the nursery environment.

Finally there is a group of studies in which the experimenter has modified the institutional environment in order to observe the effects on children's development. David and Appell (1961) attempted to provide more personal care for a small group of babies in a nursery by arranging that about 88% of day care was provided by two chief nurses, the rest of it, including night care, being provided by others. As in all studies of 'enriched' nursery care, the environment was still grossly different from that in an ordinary family. The effects of the régime on the infants have not yet been reported, but the reactions of the nurses were striking and a reminder of the limits of possible improvements to residential nursery care: they found it difficult and unnatural to have to provide individual affection for a succession of babies passing through the nursery. Du Pan and Roth (1955) describe the development of babies in a nursery where conditions were optimal and unlike those described elsewhere: an average of one staff member to two babies, demand feeding in the early months, good provision of toys and outings, and unrestricted parental visiting. Developmental Quotients were only slightly below average; and an interesting case history is given of an

infant deliberately transferred there from an old-fashioned nursery whose quotient rose from 55 to 80 during his stay. Of all the studies, this presents the most favourable picture of nursery conditions and of healthy development in the children. Dennis and Sayegh (1965) gave a small group of very deprived infants an hour's extra attention a day for a fortnight. Their mean gain in Developmental Quotient increased rapidly, but remained at a standstill for six weeks after the experiment. Casler (1965a and b) investigated, separately, the effects of daily stroking on the babies and of standardized verbal stimulation. Infants given the extra handling did make greater developmental gains than their controls; those who had 'one, two, three, four, five' repeated to them for twenty minutes a day did not. This is not surprising, since the point of speech is that it has meaning and expression.

The most thorough attempt to bring the institutional environment close to that of a home was made by Rheingold (1956), who exclusively 'mothered' eight six-month-old babies from 7.30 a.m. to 3.00 p.m. five days a week for eight weeks. The children recognised and responded to the experimenter as to no other adult, vocalised more than controls, and half of them were upset when she ceased to visit. A year later when all the children had been placed with families, they were visited, their social responses observed, and an Infant Intelligence Test administered (Rheingold and Bayley, 1959). The experimenter was not recognised, and there were no differences in social responsiveness between the two groups; nevertheless, even after the year's gap, the experimental group vocalised more and achieved slightly higher test scores. Rheingold also reports that the children by this time appeared healthy, sociable and of average intelligence, and were causing no anxiety to their parents or foster parents. They had spent (on average) their first nine months in the Home; this is perhaps the most favourable evidence about development *after* an early stay in residential care. It may appear to contradict Provence and Lipton's report of some remaining disabilities; but their sample had been at least twice as long in nursery care as Rheingold's and the nursery environments may have differed considerably. There is also the possibility that Provence and Lipton's observations, though admittedly impressionistic, may have been more sensitive.

These investigations, although grouped together as studies of small children, are of course heterogeneous: the subjects vary in age, in length of stay, in whether they were separated from home or never had one. But in spite of encouraging evidence of improvement in the care of infants,[1] there is little in them to shake, and much to confirm, the accepted opinion that residential nurseries, apart from the earliest months of life and the shortest stay, should be a last resort for babies and younger children. There may always remain some element of guesswork in studying children not yet able to verbalise; even stronger

[1] The Williams Report (1967) reveals that the staffing ratio in residential nurseries is currently one staff member to 1·5 children.

evidence, therefore, is the number of investigations which have found a link between early prolonged residential care and later maladjustment or failure to make use of family life (Trasler, 1955[1]; Conway, 1957; Pringle and Bossio, 1960; Parker, 1965[1]). Parker found that the length of time previously spent in residential care was significantly associated with fostering breakdown, and Trasler that time in residential care during the *first three years* was similarly associated with later fostering failure; Conway that early entry into care was associated with later maladjustment. Lewis (1954) also found that children in a Reception Home who had been separated before the age of two were very significantly more disturbed than the rest of the sample; even more precisely, Ferguson (1966) reports that in a fairly large sample of school-children in care, there were more low I.Q.s among children received into care before five than after, and most among those received into care during their first year. Both in his sample and Lewis's, children's home backgrounds were extremely inadequate; yet even the very patchy care given at home evidently provided some advantage for the children who received it. It is also worth noting that there is no study in this area providing contradictory findings.

Although the undesirability of prolonged early institutional care is accepted in theory, genuine appreciation of underlying reasons may not be as widespread. This is hardly surprising, the total development of very young children being so hard to assess apart from the aspects measured by the Developmental Quotient; and if serious abnormalities in these external aspects—it is to be hoped—are no longer likely to occur, there may be a temptation to believe that the relatively normal-seeming children of one, two or three years old in nurseries are missing very little. Four possible reasons for misunderstanding exist: the difficulty of assessing the *total* development of very young children; the extent to which deficits (or assets) may remain hidden for years before becoming apparent; the vagueness of the concept of 'mother-love' when it is used in arguments about care for young children; and the recency of research interest in the first year or two of life.

This recent beginning of detailed and systematic research on infant development demonstrates (the studies in question are too numerous to review here) that 'maternal care' is neither a term of sentimental simplification, nor something for which measured amounts of 'stimulation' can be substituted; but rather an immensely complex process of interaction and adaptation—possibly too complex to be more than partially available to research—though simple in its biological basis. The belief that babies are indifferent to their surroundings during the early months is being undermined by this work; and experiments with the step-by-step growth of attitudes to recognition of objects, to sequences of cause and effect, to simple ideas of consistency in space and time—all observed in children under eighteen months—give factual support to

[1] Included in *Foster Home Care—Facts and Fallacies*

the hypothesis that very important bases for thinking and feeling are being laid as early as this. The ordinary family setting not only provides surprisingly much more stimulation when measured in time studies (Rheingold, 1956 and 1961; David and Appell, 1961); it provides one, or a few, people who are regularly present and deeply interested in the infant, and who respond to his communications; so giving him an opportunity to learn early to distinguish, recognize and enjoy specific individuals, to make sense of the environment, and to acquire the sense of being able to influence it.

It might be argued that the literature on Kibbutz-reared children, which unanimously finds more than adequate intellectual and personality development in children and adolescents, is contradictory evidence, since communal nurseries are used there from birth. Conditions, however, are so different from even the best residential nurseries elsewhere, that this objection cannot be sustained. Not only are Kibbutz nurseries well staffed, extremely child-centred, and run by communities very much aware of child psychology; but children generally are fed by their mothers for up to a year, spend several hours each day with parents, and have the opportunity to identify themselves with both a family and a community of great stability. Rabin (1958) did in fact find Kibbutz babies between nine and seventeen months slightly retarded socially; but the limitations of the Developmental Quotient as a significant measure have already been pointed out, and by a later age children from the same communities were found to be slightly superior to controls on several measures.

The evidence is still strong, therefore—even in the absence of a recent study of residential nurseries in this country—that although nurseries have improved dramatically since the time of the early studies of orphanages and foundling homes, they cannot be a desirable long-term environment for small children. Not *every* home environment is better (Patton and Gardner, 1963, have shown that in totally neglectful homes severe deprivation can take place); and a series of broken foster-ties may also be harmful even to a baby; every effort should therefore be made to keep these children in their homes *and* to ensure that they receive a reasonable standard of care. Family group Homes may be preferable to nurseries if placement is essential; research evidence on this point would be useful. For children likely to remain in long-term care, decisive plans should be made as early as possible; the fact that length of stay often becomes uncertain, short stays lapsing into long ones, suggests an important subject for research. Greater vigilance, and more knowledge about what causes this to happen, might reduce the problem considerably.

Since some nurseries will probably always exist, encouragement can be drawn from the research evidence that visible 'institutionalisation' can be a thing of the past, and that the evidence links impairment with longer rather than shorter stays. There is no great difficulty in learning

from the literature what factors are necessary for making nursery care as good as it possibly can be. Foremost is a really adequate number of staff—preferably one nurse, student or trained, to one or two children—and a low staff turnover. Nurses should be, perhaps, not so much *trained* to understand babies' psychological needs (and thereby made worried about their capacity to 'love' them), as given their whole training in such a way that their natural ability to give warm, unhurried care is not stifled. Flexible routines for the children should be valuable, a variety of toys and changes of scene, full opportunities for exploration and play, the chance to experiment early with feeding and dressing; and even at the earliest age frequent visiting by the mother and other relatives, where this is possible, should be useful as providing handling by someone who feels closely 'connected' with the child; and by sustaining some kind of link with his family might make eventual reunion more likely, or at least prevent a complete severance of contact. Research on nursery care as it exists today—on the extent to which these opportunities are general and the extent to which they can mitigate the disadvantages of group care for very young children—is urgently needed; and reports from the areas in this country that have closed down their residential nurseries would be very valuable.

b. *Studies of older children*

The picture of older children in care is complicated by many more factors than in the case of babies growing up in nurseries. In the latter case the question is whether communal care can provide the essentials for early development; in the former, while some children may have grown up in nurseries, the majority have had varying periods of home care as well as various painful experiences which have all contributed to their development. Few of them, in any of the countries whose literature is reviewed here, are simply orphans. No analysis could be fine enough to distinguish the effects of all the factors in the life of the typical older child in long-term care; the question must be how care can mitigate rather than add to existing deprivation. Bearing these limitations in mind, the relevant research will be grouped as follows: studies of the children themselves; retrospective studies (adults who were once in care); studies of the reversibility of deprivation or institutional life.

Feinberg (1954) found that orphanage children in the U.S.A. made poorer scores on the Stanford Achievement Test than fostered children, and much poorer ones than home-reared children; intelligence scores were slightly above average, however. In the same year Lewis published a substantial study of children in care in this country. Since the setting was a Reception Centre, the considerable pathology found in these children was rather due to separations and home conditions than to long periods in care, although a quarter had been in previous placements. Intelligence and scholastic records were poor (verbal ability, as confirmed by other studies, being unusually depressed); physical

health and weight below standard; three-quarters were assessed as disturbed to some degree. Disturbance was associated more with rejection and separations than with dirty or anti-social homes; indeed, 83% of children who had had long separations from their mothers before the age of five were disturbed, and of those who were not, most appeared to have been attached to a mother-substitute. Among the group of children separated before the age of two, not only were there significantly more disturbed children, but significantly fewer were found to have improved when followed up after placement. For the whole sample, little scholastic improvement had been achieved by follow-up. Finally, the closer the child's contact with relatives, the better his condition—a finding confirmed by several other studies. Conway (1957), describing the population of the Jewish Orphanage, Norwood, found that a stable relationship with an adult (inside or outside the establishment) was closely linked with good adjustment. His population had poorer adjustment (as assessed by teachers) than a control group, although the difference was not as marked as in some other samples; this was doubtless due to the special character of the Orphanage, which took mainly older children, and few from delinquent or neglectful families. Several small-scale theses (Rawlinson, 1954; McAfee, 1958; Howlin, 1961; Olley, 1961; Hirsch, 1957; Kandil, 1955; Walters, 1963) contribute to the picture of the older child in care; intelligence scores were significantly lower than matched controls (Howlin, Walters), reading and arithmetic attainment below average (Walters), rate of progress slower over a school year (Rawlinson), and projective tests suggested emotional impoverishment and neurotic and aggressive trends (Olley, Hirsch, Kandil, McAfee, Walters). In the latter study, boys who had been in care since birth produced poorer material than those admitted after the age of five. Castle (1954) focused on the social stresses experienced at school by children from Cottage Homes, and describes the considerable rivalry and hostility expressed by schoolmates and their parents. Chamber's (1961) study[1], although concerned with fostered children, investigates another characteristic of the deprived child. Following Piaget's methods, she tested children's understanding of abstract ideas of time, and found significantly less understanding among the fostered children (who had all had at least three placements) than among controls *of the same intelligence;* which provides confirmation for the theory outlined in section (*a*) linking capacity for abstract thought with a stable early environment. The most recent study of children in care (Ferguson, 1966) confirms previous findings: school performance, intelligence, employment record, delinquency record and character assessment were all considerably poorer than in a comparable group of working-class youths (but it should be noted that the sample came into care at least fifteen years ago). Fostered children did better than children in Homes; but—and this applies wherever such a com-

[1] Included in *Foster Home Care—Facts and Fallacies.*

parison is made—this must partly reflect the selection of suitable children for fostering.

Findings of poor intelligence, performance, and adjustment among children in care are general; only one piece of contradictory evidence is offered. Gavrin and Sacks (1963) report that children in temporary residential care made a considerable gain in I.Q. during their stay, which increased with the length of stay. It would be valuable to know more about the conditions in the Home studied which account for this finding. The authors note that some children came from other placements, where perhaps their I.Q. had already declined. (The average progress during a year's stay was an increase from 89 to 97 points.) But evidently the progressive and individualised care provided was mainly responsible for the encouraging outcome. Reports from other countries (Welfare Office, Jerusalem, 1963; Duehrsson 1958; Ziv, 1965) confirm the less encouraging findings to a greater or lesser degree. Pringle's series of studies add further confirmation and examine particular aspects of the development of the child in residential care in more detail. With Bossio (1958), she examined a fairly large sample of school-age children living in Cottage Homes. Mean I.Q.s were below average; early entrance into care, and lack of contact with parents or relatives, were significantly associated with lower scores. Verbal scores were lower than performance scores. There was a greater incidence of assessed maladjustment than among an average population of children—anxiety, restlessness, aggression and educational backwardness being the commonest symptoms. Only in social development did the children reach an average level, but maladjustment was commoner among the more socially competent—suggesting that social maturity was premature and precarious. These findings were then explored in greater detail. Language and reading skills were investigated (1958b), and both found to be even farther below average levels than intelligence quotients. Again, early entrance into care and lack of contacts outside the Homes were significantly associated with poor achievement.

These associations were examined in two further studies (Pringle and Bossio, 1960; Pringle and Clifford, 1962). In the former, selected notably stable and notably maladjusted children in residential Homes were compared. All the stable children, and only two of the maladjusted, had remained with their mothers until well after the first year of life, and had kept up a lasting relationship with them or with another adult outside the Home. In the latter, a similar enquiry was made with a larger sample, and although age at separation did not differ significantly between the well and poorly adjusted children, the association between contact with family, or substitutes, and good adjustment was confirmed, as was the link between good adjustment and learning ability. These studies emphasize two important points: firstly, that the deprived child, by being handicapped both emotionally and intellectually, lacks the verbal skills that could help him understand his predicament and

eventually find work suited to his potential ability; the more he needs intellectual tools to make good the disruption in his life, the less likely he is to have them. Rawlinson's study of school progress suggests that this process may be cumulative, deprived children falling behind a little more each year. Secondly, the studies provide a hopeful lead by emphasizing the usefulness of stable support from adults—even non-relatives—outside the Home.

A small group of retrospective follow-up studies of adults who had been in care should be mentioned. Such studies present some research problems, and inevitably they refer back to methods of child care which may have since changed, but they do add a different kind of evidence to that gathered by assessment of children while they are in care. Ferguson's study has already been mentioned. Part of his sample was followed up for the first two years after leaving care; encouragingly, a fair number of young people were still living with foster parents at the age of twenty, but the rate of convictions, illegitimate pregnancies, and unemployment was very high. The number of convictions and job changes was twice as high among those with poor school records than among the rest (supporting Pringle's findings about younger groups). Mitchell (1959) estimated (without detailed assessment) that of 158 young people who had left care, 100 could be considered well adjusted, and nearly all of these lived with or kept in close touch with foster parents. Meier's (1965, 1966) data on former foster children reveal a rather high incidence of marital breakdown and illegitimate births, although subjects were generally successful socially and economically. Maas (1963) ingeniously traced twenty young adults who had been evacuated very young to residential nurseries for up to four years during the Second World War. Since most had eventually been reunited with fairly affectionate families, they were not typical of most children in long-term care; nevertheless, rating of projective and interview material by independent judges disclosed that personal relationships (but not social performance or intellectual functioning) were impaired for all who had been evacuated at under four years old. Those placed during the first year of life showed most impairment.

One other group of studies—unfortunately a small one—remains to be considered: those concerned with the reversibility of the effects of deprivation. Pringle and Sutcliffe (1960) report some moderately encouraging results from special remedial teaching given to children of junior school age in residential care. Most children increased and maintained their rate of progress in reading accuracy and comprehension (but not in arithmetic), and some improvement in general adjustment was also noted. Possibly such remedial work would be even more successful if carried out as early in children's school careers as possible. Real reversal of emotional damage or deprivation is harder to assess, and accounts are given only in isolated case studies. Hellman's (1962) paper is unusual because it describes one case, from childhood separation in a residential nursery through to adulthood, showing how reactions to

separation were eventually incorporated into a stable adult personality. The subject was not typical of children in residential care, however, for she was evidently given exceptionally personal substitute mothering before being reunited with an affectionate family. Aubry (1955) reports that intensive therapy with children under three resulted in partial reversal of symptoms of severe deprivation, and David and Appell (1961) describe one such case in detail. In general, it can be concluded that while the effects of separation and deprivation *may* be partially reversible, the question can only be an academic one since the vast majority of children in care are unlikely to receive special therapeutic attention.

To sum up: there is considerable agreement that the child in care typically—but not of course always—has suffered from both emotional and intellectual handicaps, and functioned in most ways more poorly than his counterpart who is not in care. The unsuitability of residential care for small children is also confirmed, both by intensive current studies and by data on older children with a history of early entry into care. The heterogeneity of the studies reviewed here must be borne in mind, and the impossibility of knowing whether handicaps were acquired before or after leaving home, as well as the inevitable time-lag between the date of research and the date of reviewing findings; nevertheless the picture is not an encouraging one for those who would want the child entrusted to public care to have as nearly as possible the same opportunities as the average child brought up in his own family. It might be argued that no valid comparison can or should be drawn between the child in care and the 'average'; that the criterion is a false one and that a more realistic standard of comparison would represent the actual alternatives open to the children who do come into care. But research has not as yet been designed with such criteria in mind; most studies up to the present have used a control group of average children, and have performed a useful service in dispelling any misconceptions that standards of wellbeing and achievement might be similar. Future research could well focus on the kinds of decisions made, the kinds of alternatives available, and in particular the alternative of remaining at home whenever a family can be helped to remain above the threshold of breakdown. But it would be dangerous to ignore the norm of the average child—and this does not mean the privileged—altogether; to accept lower standards as permanent and inevitable.

Can anything be inferred from the research about the factors which are most favourable and most harmful for children in residential care? Two distinct factors seem to be causally associated with poor outcome: early entry into care, and the absence of good family (or substitute-family) contacts. About favourable factors in the residential environment there is less evidence, as there is little research comparing different kinds of residential care. It is reasonable to assume that in Homes, as in nurseries, the more stable and skilled the staff and the richer the environment, the better for the child. Some possibilities are suggested by

the research reviewed here: special teaching, contact with supportive people outside the Home, observation and discussion groups (Anthony, 1958; Appell 1963, 1965). The trend towards small family-sized groups may be beneficial, but no assessment of their success has yet been made.

A scrutiny of how residential care is viewed and organised in other countries is instructive, although the material included in this book is not full enough for a detailed comparison to be made. Wolins (1965) points out that elsewhere, especially in Communist and Catholic countries, and in Israel, group care is considered to be the most sensible placement and superior to foster care, although there are indications that the merits of foster care are being reconsidered in Israel (Jaffe, 1964) and in Europe (Mulock Houwer, 1963). It is not possible to say whether greater confidence in residential care does raise the standard in these countries, but at any rate confidence appears to be linked with a more sophisticated standard of training in several countries, where the 'educative' work of the house-parent is sharply distinguished from the domestic work, which is done by other staff, and where heads of Homes are frequently trained social workers (Clement Brown, 1958). A study of an English institution by a foreign worker, and vice versa, would be most interesting.

In searching for both prevention and cure of deprivation among children in care, it may be useful finally to separate three aspects of it: first, retardation or impoverishment springing from lack of psychological 'nourishment'; secondly, reactions to positively painful experiences such as ill-treatment and separations; and thirdly, the experiences which affect the presence or absence of a sense of identity, of belonging to a family or social group. Something has been said already about what can be done to minimise the first aspect of deprivation, by providing the richest possible environment within the group setting. The second factor is one about which least can, perhaps, be done, apart from helping residential staff to have as much understanding as possible of the previous experiences and the feelings of children in their care. Little attention has been paid to the third factor, the sense of identity, but there should be scope for helping the child in care by giving him the fullest possible knowledge about his background and prospects. None of these factors can be considered in isolation; for instance, remedial teaching to provide extra 'nourishment' may be ineffective for children who are preoccupied with the problem of their identity; or therapeutic help be wasted on children who have lived in too impoverished an environment during their early years.

3. Child care staff

a. *Residential staff*

Most recommendations for improving the quality of substitute care depend in the long run on the staff who try to implement them, and no

one—except foster parents—has more day-to-day responsibility for the children than residential staff. Fortunately Monsky (1963) has made a thorough and useful survey of the experience, working conditions and attitudes of a large sample of housemothers (and the study would largely apply equally well to male staff). It is clear that high turnover among residential staff is one of the child care service's major problems. About a fifth or more leave the service annually and another fifth change jobs within the service. The proportion may be as high in other fields of work, but in the care of children the coming and going of substitute parents is obviously particularly serious. The reasons for the turnover emerge rather clearly from Monsky's research and corroborate the findings of Castle (1954), Conway (1957), Clement Brown (1958) and Jarrett (1959).

Firstly, long hours (60% of them spent in domestic work) and lack of privacy were the primary causes of dissatisfaction, rather than salaries; and these unsatisfactory living conditions were no doubt linked with the other most frequently mentioned problem, uneasy relationships with other staff and with difficult children. Some distrust and rivalry between housemothers and their assistants was expressed, and some dissatisfaction with relationships with Child Care Officers. Difficult children (especially adolescents) were considered a serious problem for housemothers and so was the high turnover of children leaving for foster homes or their own homes, which made it hard to achieve satisfying relationships. The same point was stressed by the housemothers interviewed by Castle. There was some indication that these difficulties tended to discourage in particular the more idealistic and permissive staff members. This is corroborated by Jarrett's finding that in four Reception Homes studied, the younger houseparent couples were leaving the service because of disillusionment and emotional strain. She also comments on difficulties in communication between Child Care Officers and residential staff, on the long working hours and on lack of privacy.

Again, the same problems are noted by Conway in his study of a voluntary Home; and since his investigation began in 1952, working hours and accommodation were evidently a problem as long as fifteen years ago. Conway also discusses the status and background of male staff, noting that no housefathers had originally intended to take up the work, and few meant to stay in it for long. Evidently, residential child care offers an even less definite role to men than to women (Clement Brown, 1958). And though much could and should be done to make the working conditions in residential care more attractive—easing the strain of working relationships at the same time—the question of role and status is possibly even more important.

The role of permanent parent-substitute is no longer generally possible when so many children are fostered or return home; the trained social worker-houseparent is as yet only an ideal, and perhaps a

discouraging one for those who have to cope here and now; and, in the meantime, the residential worker has a disturbed and transient population to care for, and a changing set of child-rearing standards to rely on. But at the very least, improved working conditions (reflecting respect for the residential worker's task), the extension of training courses and conferences, and the improvements in recruitment and selection procedures recommended by Monsky and by Williams, should solve some problems and reduce some wastage, with an immeasurable gain in stability for the children in Homes. Monsky's report points out that most of the proposed changes would increase costs, with the exception of improved communications between staff. This would be costly in human effort, however.

All these points are re-emphasised by the National Council of Social Service's recent and very comprehensive report on residential work of several kinds, including work with children (Williams Committee, 1967). The question of status emerges again as the crucial one: without it, good candidates are not attracted to the job, young people leave it too frequently, and male candidates in particular are discouraged from applying for work which offers no scope for promotion. Future staffing problems, in view of the number of children coming into care and the number of women marrying early instead of taking up employment, are described as very grave.

The report presents a detailed and practical range of proposals to attract new kinds of staff (including part-time and non-resident workers); but the crux of the recommendations is the extension of recognised training *to all* residential workers, which, if and when it is implemented in some form, would certainly give residential care a new and necessary professional standing. Training for this field has perhaps been undervalued because the heart of the matter of caring for children cannot be taught academically, and some of the most successful house-parents have had no training; but even leaving aside the value of, for instance, a knowledge of the social services, a training period can be considered especially useful as a time for growing up and taking in new points of view and meeting other students with similar interests; and above all, given the disadvantages of residential life, good candidates are simply not going to be attracted to a career which enjoys a lower standing than social work or teaching.

b. *Child Care Officers*

Turnover is also high among Child Care Officers, with further loss of continuity for children. Hours of work are invariably reported to be long—Burns and Sinclair (1963) mention a 43½-hour week, Jefferys (1965) a 47-hour week, Jarrett a 9¾ hour day, the Devon County Council Report (1961) 9–12 hours' weekly overtime, Shone (1966) one day a week's overtime. Evening and weekend work is reported to be common. All the above studies emphasise the large amount of time

spent on routine office work and travelling: Burns and Sinclair's sample (in Scotland) had devoted 72% of their time to these two activities, Shone's sample (a small one) spent 19.4% of their time in travelling; Holman (1964), studying his own year's work, had spent 45% of his time in office duties. He notes that short-term fostering was particularly time-consuming, and that extra work was connected with a high turnover of children. Jefferys concludes that much of the work carried out by Child Care Officers during the course of her study did not appear to demand the University training which three-quarters of her sample (in the Home Counties) possessed. The number of highly trained staff in the area confirms the report of the Williams Committee that trained workers congregate in the more pleasant southern areas.

Actual amount of time spent in casework, particularly with children, appears to be considerably less than the emphasis on casework in the literature would suggest. Shone estimates that in 1964 each Child Care Officer could be expected to have an average of less than two days' contact per year with each child, when total numbers of staff and children were compared. This is, of course, a crude method of measuring the quantity or quality of casework; but in all studies, the total time spent in all kinds of casework is reported as fairly low, varying from about a fifth to two-fifths of working time. When this time is divided among foster parents, residential staff, parents, and children, it is apparent that many contacts must be perfunctory. Shone also notes that 48% of casework time was taken up by 3% of cases. As far as actual conversation with children was concerned, Burns and Sinclair found that only about 2% of the time of child care workers (including Children's Officers) was spent in this way.

It may be inevitable that travelling and office work should take up a large part of the majority of Child Care Officers' time, although some rationalisation of office routine could obviously be useful. Greater realism about the actual content of the work may be even more important, for there is some indication that the child care service may be leaving a dangerous gap between theory and reality; Burns and Sinclair found that workers seriously underestimated the time spent in office work and travelling, and overestimated the time spent in casework, particularly preventive work. Shone also notes that in the discussions on work analysis which he led, child care workers were unwilling to discuss anything but the casework part of their job, although 65% of their time proved to be spent in administrative and preparatory work.

A common problem for both residential staff and Child Care Officers appears to be that about three-quarters of their work is fairly routine, while the other quarter demands the most exceptional skill and personal qualities. Whether this is one of the reasons for high turnover among field staff is uncertain, since there has been no relevant investigation in this country. Tollen (1960) found that the status, higher salaries

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and better opportunities obtainable elsewhere were the main reasons for male workers leaving child welfare in the United States; and marriage, maternity and again, better opportunities elsewhere, the main reasons for women.

Whatever the reasons, the shortage of qualified Child Care Officers appears to be at least as serious as the shortage of house staff, and relevant research and discussion are even more scarce. Watson (1964) analyses the impending staffing crisis in some detail: while field workers' responsibilities increase in range and complexity, the percentage of fully qualified staff is decreasing and that of vacant posts is actually increasing. Stroud (1963) calls attention to the fact that (at the time of writing) training schemes could only be expected to produce about one-third of the field staff that would be required. Watson recommends considerable expansion and co-ordination of training courses to meet the emergency, the establishment of a central training college for child care, and the building up of facilities for practical work training. The two crucial problems remain the same in recruiting both resident and field staff: the growing scarcity of the unmarried career woman; and the community's undervaluation of those caring for the deprived child.

3. Conclusions and Recommendations

> Effective (though not total) primary prevention of certain mental disorders is possible with what we know *now* if we but have the will to apply it . . . Our nation must be prepared to invest its material substance, to an extent far beyond present conceptions, in the cultivation of people. (Eisenberg, 1962).

To study the literature on child care is to be referred back time and time again to the social priorities which make substitute care necessary for so many children. Although the prime cause of broken families may in the majority of cases lie in parental inadequacy, it is reasonable to infer from the available evidence that this ranges from intractable pathology to an inability to cope with overwhelming circumstances. For the children of families in this latter group, the really effective services that could maintain them at home with one parent do not exist. No recommendations which ignore these deficiencies can be either forceful or honest; but the basic social provisions which could reduce the number of separated families and prevent damage to a great number of children—better housing, possibly higher Family Allowances and a special allowance enabling single parents to keep their children, a more generous policy altogether towards the sections of the community now recognized to be living well below the standards of the majority—lie outside the scope of this review. It would be a mistake, however, not to recognize that these provisions—which reflect the community's respect and concern for those handicapped by poverty or illness, childhood or old age—are the crucial determinants of whether or not children have equal chances of a basic minimum environment for healthy development.

That children in long-term substitute care do *not* generally have the same opportunities as their counterparts from the same social class who live at home, and certainly not the same opportunities as more privileged children, is clear from the research reviewed above. This is perhaps a truism to all concerned with child care work; but it is one which needs restating with some force and with factual support—for sometimes to those working most closely with children in care, to use Bowlby's phrase, 'familiarity diminishes sensitivity'.

The first step in reassessing the child care situation, therefore, is the recognition that families with a low income and several children, with only one parent, or with physical or mental handicaps, are generally at

risk of disintegration; that once the family is broken and children are placed, they may acquire further handicaps, and family reintegration may be difficult; that there is an association between having been in care (among other factors) and subsequent delinquency, illegitimate pregnancies and mental illness, suggesting that pathology may be passed on to another generation (Ferguson, 1966; Barry and Lindemann, 1960; Baker and Holzworth, 1961; Earle and Earle, 1961); and that in terms of financial cost alone, it is more expensive to keep one child in care until adulthood than to provide a new home (Wynn, 1964). In the light of these facts, to make provision for special allowances for all single parents—unmarried, widowed or deserted—at risk of long separation from their children, as recommended by Wynn, and additionally to set up a special Home Help service for the children of these parents, would appear more than justified both in terms of cost and of humanity. That these two measures alone could effect a substantial reduction in the number of children in care, facilitating higher standards both in foster care and residential care, is suggested by the fact that mental or physical illness, desertion, or death of one parent, altogether accounted for nearly a tenth of children coming into care in 1964/5 (*Children in Care in England and Wales*, 1966) and that children in care for these reasons stayed there for longer than average. Both the residential and the field services in child care are facing a severe staffing crisis in the next few years (Watson, 1964; Williams, 1967); money will have to be spent, and it seems justifiable on all counts that it should be allocated primarily towards reducing the population of children in public care, and then towards increasing the population of child care workers. Even to maintain present staffing standards will evidently require thought and effort in the future. A radical alternative to public care for some children is obviously indicated, and research is urgently needed to clarify how many children, in what type of situation, could be kept with a parent, and how successfully.

The fear is sometimes voiced—and perhaps even more frequently felt—that such measures may increase rather than reduce social problems: that higher Family Allowances will induce parents to have more children, help for unmarried mothers raise the population of illegitimate children, 'single parent' allowances or Home Helps perhaps encourage mothers or fathers to desert their spouses. There is no evidence that such measures introduced in other countries have had undesirable effects. A review of the outcome of these provisions, where they have been introduced, would be a valuable contribution to thinking about radical prevention.

As a small start, a Home Help 'demonstration project' as carried out by some American agencies could be set up (Children's Aid Society, 1962). Although the present domiciliary service is fully occupied, it is not mainly concerned with keeping children out of care; Packman (1965) found agreement among Children's Officers that on its present scale it

made little difference to the child care problem. The possibility of setting up a special service linked with some training, and possibly appealing to women who are unwilling to live in residential Homes, could be explored.

Provisions such as these would constitute a more radically effective preventive programme than work done piecemeal by individuals in Children's Departments. But such work within the child care service, recognised officially by the Children and Young Persons Act 1963, is also important and should now be ready to progress from the stage of formal recognition to being the subject of critical examination, discussion and planning. The President of the Association of Children's Officers stated at the Annual Conference in 1961 that 'Children's Authorities have for years now regarded it as a vital part of their work to treat the family as a whole and not to deal with the child as an isolated unit'. But there is no reflection in the research and literature of how this 'vital work' is done. What proportion of time is spent on preventive work by Child Care Officers? Spent in what ways? and how successfully? Since this is always likely to be difficult and time-consuming work, research and discussion are urgently needed in order to plan it efficiently. It may be that it should be concentrated to be of maximum effectiveness—concentrated in the hands of one worker, and on selected families, rather than that many workers should spend time haphazardly with the most difficult cases. But it should be recognised that individual efforts may be hampered or even wasted unless they are carried out in the framework of genuinely preventive social measures.

Concepts like prevention (of the need for public care of children or for any other form of social first-aid) commonly go through several phases: a pioneering stage when individuals work to get a new idea accepted, then a time of official recognition, and finally a stage when the details of practical implementation are thrashed out and practised (and one might add a fourth phase when complacency threatens previous achievements). Prevention has now reached the second stage, and it should be ready to enter the third. Discussion in practical, rather than theoretical, terms of its implementation at all levels should be a major inference from the findings of child care research.

To turn from recommendations for preventive provisions, to the means of improving the quality of residential care for children who cannot be kept at home by these provisions, involves a dilemma which is sometimes ignored in child care writings. No organisation can function well without confidence in its value; but if substitute care, and residential care in particular, is so damaging that children must be kept out of it if at all possible—and this is now official policy—it must inevitably be hard for both field and residential staff to do their work with confidence. The knowledge that one's work involves painful experiences for children and that the care offered is inevitably second-best (second at least to their ideal parents if not the to real ones) must

lead to disillusionment or denial for some workers. Even hospital staff, who have the reassurance of knowing that their work is visibly therapeutic, have found it hard to accept the findings of Bowlby and others on the emotional effects of hospitalisation; while child care workers have no such assurance that—with the limited resources available at present—the care given will be therapeutic.

To stress the not very encouraging findings of many of the research reports in this book may seem to be adding to possible discouragement; but it is done in the belief that difficulties recognised are better than difficulties insidiously undermining confidence in a profession. All those giving substitute care have the task of giving the best care they can while knowing that it *is* a substitute; and perhaps the more the problem is acknowledged the less of an obstacle it may become. Residential care in particular has been depreciated in two ways: it has been considered the poorer alternative to foster care (partly as a result of research on old-fashioned orphanages and on very young children in nurseries) and it has consequently become the accepted placement for difficult children who cannot be fostered—a kind of doubly substitute care, neither own home or foster home. Whether or not the *good* foster home is always better than group care, such homes will probably always be in short supply, and the research reviewed in *Foster Home Care—Facts and Fallacies* indicates the hazards of foster home breakdown for a large number of the children cared for in families.

There is no need, therefore, for residential workers to feel that they are offering an inferior kind of care (except for very young children), but a great need for more enthusiasm about the possibilities of residential work. Research should be directed towards finding out what are the beneficial elements in group life and how they can be incorporated in Homes, shifting the emphasis from (though not forgetting) what such care *cannot* be, to what it can at its best provide. There have been no studies comparing one kind of Home with another, but generally research (and common-sense) suggests that better and more individualised group care can affect children's adjustment considerably, and this could be explored further. Sociological analyses such as Castle's, of Homes in relation to the community, would also be valuable; and the current interest in the dynamics of groups and communities could be usefully applied to Children's Homes. And the more children who have at least one affectionate parent and can be kept at home by preventive provisions, the easier it should be for residential staff to care confidently for a smaller population of children, who have *no* alternative home. If new confidence and professionalism can be stimulated, part of the benign circle might be a lower staff turnover.

The indefinable factor of group 'spirit' or group identification could —if it were genuine—be as valuable a counterbalance to the drawbacks of group living for the child in care as evidently it can be for the child in boarding-school or Kibbutz; and for the former, as for the latter, it

need not conflict with family loyalty. But such group feeling would depend on the confidence and security of the adults in the group; which in turn depends on status, on community recognition, and so perhaps finally on training.

Part of this fresh attitude to residential care could be a willingness to experiment with new techniques and types of accommodation. Group discussions run by a skilled leader, for example, both for staff and for children, are described in the literature as a stimulating (and difficult) method of airing the problems of living in a community. These need not be carried out in the Home; older children, especially adolescents, might benefit from attending small groups containing children from other Homes or from their own families; this might serve to counteract the intellectual damping-down which is evidenced in the low scholastic achievement of most children in care. Such supportive work would be facilitated if specialists were willing to lend some of their time and interest to the needs of children in care. Even one or two successful pilot projects can act as encouragement to other workers and as a counterbalance to negative attitudes towards residential care. Another experimental technique, whereby a staff member is assigned one child to observe and then discuss at meetings, is described in French papers (Appell, 1963, 1965).

New kinds of accommodation might also be further developed, isolating children less from their families and communities: sheltered accommodation for single parents and their children; weekly care for children, with weekends spent at home; special short-stay Homes; Homes approximating to boarding-schools. Evaluation of the successes and difficulties of such schemes, where they are already being tried out, would be helpful. It is clear from the research reviewed that one of the obstacles to providing good care is the fact that some children are so damaged that no one person can tolerate their behaviour for long. By experimenting with these 'half-way houses' the burden of the more difficult children would be shared by several people and at the same time more children could remain in touch with their home backgrounds. It might also be useful, in view of Pringle's findings on the value of supportive adults outside the Home, to give a new lease of life to the 'Uncle and Aunt' scheme, renaming it more appropriately and linking it with publicity and a semi-professional approach. Goodwill in families who would not undertake fostering could thus be utilized. All such schemes would need to be assessed and discussed in operation and, if possible, should have a research plan 'built in' to them.

The importance of attracting and keeping good staff for residential posts scarcely needs stressing. Important points suggested by the research are the need for hours and conditions of work which stand comparison with other careers; for non-resident relief staff and domestic help; for opportunities for promotion and the recognition of seniority; and for

improved communications between workers from different branches and levels of child care work. Sympathy and supervision for the new recruit during the early months are clearly of great importance; and ways might be found of maintaining the interest of young people in residential work until they are old enough to start training. Where such schemes have already operated they could be discussed and evaluated. Some research might be undertaken to compare conditions in residential child care work with other kinds of residential work, with the handicapped or in approved schools, for instance.

These are all practical recommendations; in more general terms, there are two things which emerge as supremely valuable to the child in care: continuity (as much as can possibly be available to a child separated from home), and knowledge about his background and prospects, even where this is painful. While some of the recommendations and points discussed apply only to one group among the many types of children in care, the need for these things is common to all. They are, it is true, generally recognised to be important, but it is still doubtful how far this recognition is widely expressed in practical arrangements. Some possible ways of providing continuity—by letters to children, birthday cards, presents, photographs, visits—are suggested by Lomax-Simpson (1963, 1964, 1966). The building up of files of personal letters and photographs could usefully become standard practice for long-stay children. More supportive after-care for adolescents should also receive consideration; yet Jarrett notes that few Child Care Officers in her sample considered they had time for it. There is scarcely any evidence about the difficulties of this age group, but common sense suggests that there might be a special need for supervision and support that would ease the transition from Children's Home to hostel and from hostel to lodgings. Permanence of staff in Homes would, of course, contribute more than anything else to a sense of continuity for children at any age, but even to phase staff departures carefully should be helpful; and the importance of maintaining contacts with children's families is widely recognised.

The other important factor, knowledge of their backgrounds and histories, would in itself provide a kind of continuity for children in care. Its dissemination would depend, not only on the willingness of everyone concerned to make time to know as much as possible about the children and to talk to them, but also on the keeping of detailed and efficient records. Several authors have noted in their research the inadequacy of the case files they used.

An enquiry into methods of record-keeping and its difficulties would be useful as a preliminary to planning and getting support for an efficient system. The needs of both the child and those caring for him would have to be considered, and perhaps filed, separately. Studies of foster children (in the companion to this Volume) suggest that there is an association between self-knowledge and good adjustment; and while

there may be more children in residential than in foster care who are in touch with their families, many must need information, discussion, and the fullest chance to know 'who' they are. A study of the 'self-concept' of the child in residential care—how he sees himself in relation to his past and future and to the people in his life—similar to studies of foster children, would be illuminating.

It is common to end a review of research with recommendations for future investigations. Let it be stated here, however, that the first priority is that completed research—of which there is so often more than is realised—be carefully studied, and be *acted on*. As far as future work is concerned, prevention urgently deserves practical attention: firstly, an assessment of what is actually being done, and with what success; and secondly, an estimate of how many children are coming into care only, or mainly, for reasons other than gross parental inadequacy, and who could be maintained at home by radically preventive measures.[1]

Secondly, the emphasis might now shift from tests of children's adjustment and achievement to practical, comparative studies of institutions of all kinds and sizes, in order to discover what kind of group works, for whom, and how. Such studies will be especially useful if the population of the Home—both adults and children—is considered as a whole, and in relation to the surrounding community. Time studies of the residential worker's day and week, similar to Burns and Sinclair's study of field staff, would be vitally useful in planning effectively the allocation of work, the streamlining of chores and the arrangement of free time. Indeed, even the general routine of Homes and the feelings of staff working there have been almost entirely neglected as subjects of research or description. The method used by some French research workers—living in and observing Homes over a period of time—might produce interesting results (Recherche Sociale C.A.F., 1965; Ziv, 1965). Plans for training courses, such as those advocated by the Williams Committee would be greatly facilitated if more were made known and published about daily life in residential work. Conditions might be compared with those in other types of residential work; studies of the community structure and lines of communication in different types of Home would be particularly interesting. The advantages and disadvantages of small and large Homes need critical evaluation; comparisons with the larger type of Home favoured in some European countries (Research Department, Welfare Office, Jerusalem, 1961; Recherche Sociale C.A.F., 1965) might be made, and a survey of methods of training in these countries. An up-to-date study of the residential nursery and its alternatives is urgently needed.

[1] Because the prevention of unnecessary separation has been stressed, it should not be inferred that all family care is assumed to be ideal. Prevention of unfavourable factors *within* the family is outside the scope of this review but where these consist of outright cruelty or neglect, children will, of course, be removed from home as the lesser of two evils.

Thirdly, future research might make some attempt to evaluate residential (and foster) placements against a background of possible alternatives and later outcome. Leonard (1957) has carried out a preliminary study of this kind. Even a limited series of longitudinal case studies, if all the relevant factors and decisions were recorded, might be very illuminating. The problem of children who come into care for short stays and remain much longer could receive special attention.

Fourthly, reports of children's own feelings about themselves and their life in care would be enlightening and would add another dimension to the research recommended above. The experiences of adolescents, both while they are still in care and afterwards, have been particularly neglected. A useful project of quite another kind would be the evaluation of the 'Aunt and Uncle' scheme as it currently exists, with proposals for replanning and extension if it appears worth while.

Fifthly, research could usefully be directed towards discovering what kind of training is most effective for those entering residential work. Even a symposium of the views of those who have taken the present courses and subsequently started work would be interesting. Also, the reasons for the high turnover of Child Care Officers remain unexplored so far. Lastly, a survey suggests that there must be many pioneering schemes—some demanding imagination rather than money—being tried out in different areas, which do not have the benefit of even an informal description in print, let alone critical evaluation. It might be valuable if child care in this country could acquire the habit, more common in the United States, of evaluating and writing up such projects so that they could be widely discussed and perhaps adopted.

The reader who is familiar with even a proportion of the research and literature included here will realize that there is little that is new in these conclusions and recommendations. Preventive and remedial services, better conditions for residential staff, new attitudes and new techniques in group care, more continuity and more knowledge for separated children—all have been recommended before, and not only in this country. And yet it has to be concluded from a review of research results that, though child care has changed considerably over the years, there remains an uncomfortable gap between theory and practice. It may be useful, therefore, to end by considering some of the obstacles to change and improvement.

First among them are social factors which social workers are unable to control: the burden of work carried by the child care service, a burden increasing as fast as improvements are made, and the incongruity between the aims of the service and the order of social priorities which permits so many children to be dependent on public care. Secondly, although more research has been done than is perhaps recognised, there has been a lack of facilities for planning and co-ordinating studies and making findings widely known. There are also special pitfalls for all who work in community service, especially with children. Nokes (1960)

has called attention to the danger that aims may be confused with achievements in this field, in a way which would not be possible in work which depends on visibly efficient output; and also to the fact that those who formulate the aims are seldom those who have to put them into practice. The care of children is in any case so emotional a matter, with rivalry between the different 'parents' so inevitably present, and the discrepancy often so great between the life of the child in care and what any social worker would want for his or her children, that the temptation to avoid looking at the situation as it really is must always be present. The gap between policy and actual possibilities is paralleled by the distance separating field workers and those who do the substitute parenting. These discrepancies, and the child care worker's knowledge that he is inevitably a substitute—and in the circumstances not always enabled to be a good substitute—may be responsible for the unreality which Davies (1963) describes in residential settings: the concealment of family histories and of illness and death, the inadequate provision for private life. It seems that the child care service might benefit by examining what Balbernie (1966) calls 'the authenticity of what a person or an enterprise can actually do'.

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4. Residential Child Care—An Overview

1. Introduction

The first question likely to be asked by the critical reader is: why consider residential child care in isolation at a time when it is becoming widely accepted that the fragmentation of services for children must give way to a much more unified approach? Or failing greater organic unity, that much closer co-operation is needed between ministers, civil servants, local government staff and professional workers? Would it not have been preferable to examine research findings about all types of residential provision for both normal and handicapped children—from nurseries, Homes, hostels and boarding schools of all kinds, including approved schools, to long-stay hospital units of every type? The answer is, of course, an unqualified 'yes'.

The reason why this was not done, is itself a reflection of the present division of responsibility, both at central and local government level, for children who have to live apart from their own families. This review (as well as that on adoption and foster care) was made possible by financial support from the Home Office (for which the National Bureau is grateful)—hence these particular aspects of child care were chosen.

All forms of residential substitute care—be it in homes, schools or hospitals—share a number of features. Chief among them is the danger of 'institutionalisation'. Recent research in mental hospitals has shown this to be the case for adults. Little wonder that its consequence should be even more serious for children: their personalities and abilities are still developing which makes them more vulnerable to environmental influences, be these favourable or inimical to normal growth.

It is hoped that it will soon become possible to review what is known about the effects of substitute care other than that given in residential nurseries and Homes. A comparative picture could then be built up, of the children who receive it, of the methods which are being used and of their effects on children's development.

In addition to this rather artificial separation of residential child care from other forms of substitute care, there is another major difficulty

in attempting to give an overview. This lies in the fact that research in this area has been far from adequate. Though during the past eighteen years there has been mounting interest in the residential child care field and a variety of aspects have been investigated from many different points of view, research has lacked both funds and well-trained personnel. These two aspects are, of course, related: without sufficient research opportunities and without a career structure for research workers, projects are carried out with samples which are too small, in areas which are merely local, or at best regional, and over periods of time which are too short; in consequence, the utmost caution is needed in interpreting the findings and basing generalisations upon them. Studies, resulting in significant pointers, need repeating on a national scale and not merely once, but whenever there are indications that conditions have, or may shortly, be changing.

Meanwhile, what are the chief guidelines for policy and action which emerge from the present stocktaking? Though they are probably implicit in what has been said in the preceding chapters, it may help to summarise them. To begin with, what are the facts?

2. Facts

Considering the volume of research over the past eighteen years, it is disappointing that not more is known. However, this is not unexpected in view of the extremely limited funds hitherto available for this field, especially in Great Britain. Consequently, most studies have been on too limited a scale and conducted over too short a period of time. Hence only very limited generalisations are justified at this stage. Indeed, knowledge of child development in general is still limited for the same reasons[1] and it alone can provide the essential basic information, against which to explore and understand the development of children, whose experience and circumstances deviate from that of the majority.

At the same time, much is now known—enough to justify action. Yet policy changes have been slow in coming though individual authorities and voluntary societies have pioneered (and continued to do so) procedures in the child care field, based on the cumulative evidence of both casework and research.

a. *Facts regarding deprivation and substitute care*

About half the children who come into care each year (some 27,000 cases in 1966) do so on a short-term basis, the reason being their mother's confinement or short-term illness. Social and economic factors, as well as

[1] So far only one university in this country has considered child development a subject worthy of a department of its own (and even this one department is only of two years' standing); whereas even 'brewing' has enjoyed departmental status for many years in more than one university (elevated in some cases by the designation 'industrial fermentation').

psychological influences, play a part in the separation of children from their own families.

The broad categories of families 'at risk' of breaking up are sufficiently well established to make early prevention possible: (i) those with low incomes and more than four children; (ii) one-parent families; (iii) those suffering from serious or chronic physical or mental illness, or a disabling handicap; (iv) families struck by sudden disaster or disrupting crisis. In all these circumstances, parental care may become inadequate —temporarily or permanently—without additional support from social agencies or other sources outside the family.

It is now clear 'that deprivation occurring without physical separation can, in fact, be as pathogenic as deprivation occurring with separation' (Ainsworth, 1962). However, children who remain in long-term substitute care from an early age appear, in general, to show a higher incidence both of emotional disturbance and of educational backwardness than those coming from a similar socio-economic background but living in their own homes.

b. *Facts concerning infants and young children*

Prolonged institutionalisation during the early years of life leaves a child very vulnerable to later stress, if not already damaged intellectually and emotionally. However, considerable improvements can be brought about by drastically reducing the number of people concerned with the daily care and handling of infants, by ensuring continuity of 'caretaker' and by introducing a carefully planned 'enriched' and 'therapeutic' environment from the earliest years onwards.

Nevertheless, even at best residential nurseries appear to be an unsuitable form of long-term substitute care for babies and very young children. This has become increasingly clear from recent knowledge of the earliest learning, which takes place within the context of the mother-baby relationship; this has direct practical implifications for the long-term substitute care of infants.

The development of Kibbutz-reared infants gives further support to this knowledge, since conditions in such communal nurseries differ from ordinary residential nurseries in a number of crucial ways: among these are that babies are nursed by their own mothers with whom they spend several hours a day; and that the baby–staff ratio tends to be not only more favourable than is usually the case, but the turnover of staff is very low, since the 'caretakers' are themselves Kibbutz members in most cases.

c. *Facts concerning older children*

The ill-effects of long-term institutional life have been found to be very similar in the United States, in the western European countries included in this review, and in Israel (except of course for Kibbutz-reared children).

These ill-effects manifest themselves in relatively low scores on intelligence tests, poor educational progress and deficiencies in emotional and social development, when compared with children from similar socio-economic backgrounds who live with their own families. Emotional disturbance is more frequently associated with rejection by parents (and other significant adults) or a total loss of contact, rather than with dirty or antisocial home conditions.

Conversely, there is some evidence that the closer, more continuous and long-term a child's contact with relatives or other parental substitutes while in care, the more stable his personality, the more adequate his educational progress and the more satisfactory his relationships with staff and children, despite prolonged residential care. Moreover, it is not essential for the child to have lived with those who provide such stable, continuous emotional support.

Even if it were substantiated that children in foster Homes do better than those in children's Homes, this would inevitably reflect to some extent the factors which determine selection for one or the other type of substitute care; foster care may tend to be chosen for the less disturbed, less backward, and thus more acceptable and responsive child.

The two potentially most damaging aspects of residential care are that a psychologically, culturally and educationally restricted, impoverished or, at worst, even depriving substitute environment may unintentionally be provided; secondly, that unless special steps are taken, children may grow up without a personal sense of identity, lacking a coherent picture of both their past and their future.

d. *Facts relating to residential staff*

The quality of residential care is inevitably and inextricably bound up with the quality of residential staff. Their work is so demanding and responsible, that some training for it must be regarded as being absolutely essential; yet at present the majority in this country have none.

Residential work calls for high skills in making relationships at many different levels, from the professional ones with administrators, child care officers and committee members, to the emotional, but yet professional, involvement with children; moreover, for the sake of the latter, accepting relationships must also be established with visiting parents, however inadequate, foolish, hostile or destructive their behaviour may be. The policy of fostering as many children as possible who require long-term care, has resulted in making residential work much more difficult and, simultaneously, less rewarding emotionally: it is the most disturbed or handicapped children who remain for any length of time, whereas the rest stay for brief periods only. Thus, the role and the satisfactions of residential staff have considerably changed in recent years, as the rate of fostering children has been greatly stepped up

and as preventive work has resulted in greater numbers being returned to their homes, even if only temporarily.

The high rate of staff turnover (about one-third annually) militates against continuity of care and against establishing stable relationships within Homes. The main reasons for the high turnover are long hours of work and a lack of privacy. Low public esteem and low salaries are contributory factors, together with the very demanding nature of the work; there is also the risk of strained relations between staff, including Child Care Officers, because of the inherent complexity of these relations, due to the different demands of administrative, residential and field work.

The above difficulties have become quite chronic, being repeatedly mentioned in the literature of the past fifteen years.

Lastly, in the years since the war there has been a steep decline in the available supply of unmarried women, which has affected all types of residential work, including child care.

e. *Facts relating to Child Care Officers*

Staff turnover is high in this field too. Additionally, many Children's Departments are seriously short of staff and consequently hours worked are very long. A much greater proportion of Child Care Officers' time appears to be spent on routine office work and travelling than on actual case work; contacts with children receive an even lower share of time. A major part of the work seems to be fairly routine while for the rest exceptional personal qualities and case work skills are needed—a problem shared by child care and residential care staff.

Another shared problem is the undervaluation by the community as a whole of those who are professionally concerned with the substitute care of the deprived child. Lastly, and perhaps most important of all, available places for training are insufficient at present to produce the required number of staff.

3. Fallacies

The term 'fallacy' is used here in the sense of misleading or false reasoning. In most cases this arises from yesterday's truths persisting because today's findings have failed to percolate sufficiently quickly. Of course, this phenomenon is not confined to the field under review here nor to social work generally, but can be observed also in other areas such as education or medicine. To some extent this is due to the fact that beliefs and dogmas change but slowly and that newly won insights are only gradually woven into the fabric of accepted teaching and practice. Dissemination to the public at large takes place perhaps last of all.

The fallacies, briefly mentioned in what follows, do not present an exhaustive list but rather a selection from among those which may still be common among the general public.

a. *Fallacies—substitute and residential care*

That it is primarily psychological factors which make it necessary for a child to live apart from his family; or that lack of housing is the main reason. In fact, in most cases there is a multiplicity of adverse factors.

That a child should continue to stay in his own home, or in a foster home, under all circumstances. There is little basis for such a sweeping rejection of Residential Homes. On the contrary, there is some evidence that certain children may find it easier to accept, or cope with, a larger, less intimate environment since it makes less intensive, emotional demands.

That the majority of children in care are orphans. This is true neither in this country nor in any of the others included in this review where their number is nowadays relatively small.

That being brought up in a Kibbutz is a comparable experience to other forms of substitute residential care. In fact, children spend daily two to three hours with their parents as well as most of the weekend; moreover, 'during this time they usually devote themselves entirely to entertaining him and his siblings (if any). . . Even if we compare the kibbutz family with secure middle-class families in our society, how many such parents are able and willing to give their children their undivided attention for two hours a day?' (Irvine, 1966).

b. *Fallacies—infants and young children*

That the provision of good physical care during infancy is sufficient to ensure normal development later on. This is as fallacious as the belief that improved economic conditions necessarily reduce the prevalence of delinquency or mental ill health.

That babies are indifferent to, or even unaware of, changes in 'caretakers'. The contrary is true, the baby's awareness being shown by both physical and psychological reactions.

That playing with and talking to babies is at best enjoyable and, at worst, a waste of time for nurses and others who look after them. In fact, both are as essential for the development of intelligence as food is for physical growth.

That the stimulation of intellectual and language skills need only start after the onset of speech. On the contrary, the earlier such stimulation is provided, the earlier these skills will begin to develop.

That periods of short-term stay in residential nurseries result in little measurable or observable disturbance, either at the time or at subsequent follow-ups. This ignores the well-known fact that the smaller the child the more contracted his time scale—even 'tomorrow' is a long time away.

That the ready advances, if not clinging, to visiting adults commonly shown by young children in residential care, are an indication of real affection and of absence of emotional disturbance. In fact the happy,

affectionate child who is busily absorbed in his play, takes only a casual interest in a visiting stranger.

c. *Fallacies—older children*

That children in residential care are just like any others. If this were true, their care would present far fewer difficulties.

That the proportion of children living in Homes is similar all over the country. In fact, these vary widely from one area to another.

That the terms 'family homes' and 'house parents' can hide either from the children or their class mates the real facts of the situation. While all the implications are unlikely to be understood, the central issue is unavoidable.

That it is usually possible to build up or reconstruct from case records the detailed life history of a child who has been in long-term care. All too often it cannot be done.

That sheer length of residential care is by itself a factor of major importance. So far available evidence has shown this to be of limited significance.

That only a stable, emotional tie with his mother, or at least a 'blood' relation, ensures that the child develops the capacity for making satisfactory relationships subsequently. In fact, what matters is that he experiences a continuing, mutually satisfying, relationship with a mother-substitute, especially during the early formative years of his life.

d. *Fallacies—residential staff*

That any motherly woman with common sense can successfully undertake such work. This is an unrealistic and misleading over simplification, which ignores the understanding and the skills required to care for other people's emotionally unsettled, if not disturbed and unhappy, children. Neither affection nor commonsense are sufficient by themselves.

That there is a sufficient number of people available or coming forward for residential child care work. In fact there is a severe staff shortage which is neither a recent nor a transient phenomenon.

That at least the majority of the senior staff are trained. Even this is not the case.

e. *Fallacies—Child Care Officers*

That such staff spend by far the major part of their time 'caring' for children or doing casework with their families.

That a sufficient number of candidates is coming forward for training and that available training facilities are adequate to meet present staffing needs. Neither is the case.

That there is a sufficient number of trained people available for this work. In fact, there has been a chronic shortage for years.

4. Insufficient evidence

One general point needs to be mentioned to begin with: since this entire review is based exclusively on published evidence and statistics, it relates to conditions at least two, if not more, years ago. While in some cases these may have changed to the better, in other areas there may be a deterioration rather than improvement. Whichever has happened can only be shown in three ways which are complementary rather than mutually exclusive. First, by standardising record-keeping to a sufficient degree to permit the regular and frequent publication of local, regional and national trends. Secondly, by making it possible for this review to be brought up to date every two years or so. Thirdly, by mounting regular cross-sectional and longitudinal studies which allow the monitoring of developmental changes among children in substitute care in relation to changing child care practice.

There are many questions in the field of residential child care for which there is at present insufficient evidence on which to base policy and practice. Only those which seem to be of the greatest importance, or of the most immediate urgency, are considered here.

a. *Children*

What is it that the loving mother teaches the baby and young infant? How does she do it? Studies to explore these questions are of recent origin, as is the recognition that much of the most basic learning begins in earliest infancy. Clearly the findings of such studies will have a direct bearing on residential care, especially of very young children.

Are there sensitive or vulnerable periods during the growth of children as there are in the development of animals? If there are, they may hold the clue to the age at which separation and breaks in the continuity of care from one adult to another are most or least harmful respectively.

What are the short-term and long-term effects of residential care in terms of later personality development, delinquency proneness, mental ill-health, in short general effectiveness as citizen, parent and worker? How do these effects differ—if they do—from those shown among those who remained with their own families, but grew up emotionally neglected or rejected? Retrospective studies are suspect, not only because of the fallibility of memory and the inadequacy of records but also because the few investigations which have been carried out have been on too limited a scale and with too highly selected groups.

What type of child is more suitable for placement respectively in a residential home, foster home or in a family group home? After a period of favouring the last two mentioned, the pendulum is now beginning to swing back. This has come about partly through studies of foster home breakdowns and partly because children in family group homes are particularly vulnerable when the couple in charge of them wish to leave.

Then once again the child's familiar world collapses, once again cherished adults seem to reject him.

Are placement decisions taken in the light of the child's overall needs? Are they based on his past experience, both before and after being received into care? Do his personality, age, sex or other factors play a sufficient part? Or do decisions have to depend to a large extent on available vacancies? How influential in decision making are the personalities and beliefs of the Children's Officer and Child Care staff?

Very little has been published on these vital questions on which evidence must have been accumulating over the past eighteen years. That there is little agreement or general policy on these and related child care issues is suggested by Packman's findings (1965); are there likely to be comparable criteria for placement and other decisions when the number of child care officers varies so enormously from area to area, as does the ratio of Children's Officers per head of population: (from 3,500 to 28,000 people), and when available residential accommodation bears no constant relationship either to the numbers needing or being received into care? The same conclusion is unavoidable when official statistics show that, even within the London area, the proportion of children in care varies from 1·9 in Bexley to 26·2 in Tower Hamlets per 1,000 under the age of eighteen years (Home Office, 1966).

b. *Staff*

Under what conditions of work and in which types of Home is there respectively the highest and lowest rate of turnover? Does the availability of psychological and psychiatric consultants both for children and staff, lighten the heavy burdens shouldered by resident staff? Are case conferences and other formal occasions for the exchange of information and for planning a child's future a more effective means than more casual informal discussions?

As a concomitant to the change in the type of child who now receives long-term care in residential homes, has there been a change in the type of staff who is recruited or comes forward to fill vacancies?

What characteristics—if any—differentiate staff who remain and those who leave the service? There is unfortunately a sufficient number of the latter to make even a simple statistical analysis possible. For example, in 1963-4 alone, 240 people ceased to be Child Care Officers, some 28 of them transferring to allied professions; the rest (more than 160) were lost altogether 'for a variety of reasons, including illness and the strain of work' (Watson, 1964). If these figures are typical, the drain from the child care profession is considerable.

Is the rate of staff turnover uniform over the country as a whole or are there marked local or regional differences? If there are such differences, how can they be accounted for?

What are the reasons for the high turnover of Child Care Officers? Though some of the conditions found in the United States may well apply here, an enquiry is urgently needed in this country.

c. *Training*

Are courses for residential and child care staff tailored to meet present needs, and are they sufficiently flexible and adaptable at a time of changing ideas and emphases? Are appropriate and effective efforts being made to recruit older, married women to train for this work? Does the urgency of the situation justify crash courses on the model of the emergency teacher training scheme after the war?[1]

Are there a sufficient number of short as well as more extended refresher courses and are these pitched at the right level? Is study leave readily granted or are staff unable to avail themselves of what might be available for lack of relief staff?

In view of the high proportion of office work which Child Care Officers seem to have to do at present, ought more training be given in administrative procedures? Alternatively, might a more generous allocation of clerical and secretarial assistance free Child Care Officers to do more case work?

Not enough is known about the motivation for taking up social work, but it seems that interest in it declines as familiarity with it increases. 'This could mean either that the image of social work is divorced from reality or that selection procedures are still much too unscientific. . . . Another source of possible explanations is the training which is given to social workers. It is an understatement to say that training is in confusion' (John Haines, 'Satisfaction in social work', *New Society.*, 5 Jan. 1967).

d. *Institutional effects*

By what means, and to what extent, can the emotional ill-effects of prolonged residential care be mitigated, or possibly even reversed? Very little is known about these vital questions. The paucity of well-conducted studies is particularly marked in this area; indeed the majority consist of intensive case studies of a relatively few children.

Similarly, there have been few attempts in this country to devise 'enrichment or compensatory programmes' to counteract the intellectual and cultural deprivation from which the great majority of children have suffered, long before being received into residential care. Such programmes are now being devised and tested out in the United States among culturally severely deprived children, who live in their own homes. May they not also be appropriate for the child population in

[1] At the time of going to press we are told that such a scheme is being actively promoted by the Home Office.

residential care? Should the value and effectiveness of such programmes not be explored here?

Because of the increasingly accepted view that residential nurseries are not a very appropriate environment for small children, especially those needing long-term care, some authorities have given up this form of care. This would seem an ideal opportunity for comparing the development of young children in areas where foster homes are being provided for almost all, with those areas in which residential nurseries have been retained. No evaluative comparison of this kind has as yet been reported. Such evidence would be quite invaluable for forward planning.

How much is there being done to prepare those who have been in long-term care, for an independent life in the outside world? Though children pass out of care at the age of eighteen, the Children's Department has authority to assist and befriend them up to the age of twenty-one years. What measures are taken to ease the transition from living in a Children's Home to going into a hostel for those who remain in care but go out to work? What help is given over the next step towards independence, from living in a hostel to going into ordinary, private lodgings? It is well documented that such transitional periods are difficult and crucial for the rehabilitation of ex-prisoners and ex-mental hospital patients. How much more so for adolescent youngsters, trying to stand on their own feet for the first time, when they have for years been deprived of the supportive background given by a stable family to which return is always possible? Without such a possible refuge and when independence has to be granted according to age rather than emotional maturity and readiness, such independence may well spell threatening insecurity rather than an exciting opportunity. Do Local Authorities and Voluntary Societies do enough to mitigate this danger for those leaving their care?

A last example of an aspect of residential care about which there is a dearth of evidence, is the family group Home.[1] A recent discussion on such Homes took as a point of departure this remark by a fifteen year-old girl (*Child Care*, vol. 20, no. 2,1966, p. 53): 'Even if it's made of marble it's still a bloody children's Home.' The introduction pointed out that 'sixteen years have now passed since the first family group Home was built in Wales . . . and there are now nearly 900 such Homes throughout Britain, housing some 8,500 children; yet surprisingly little is known of this method of care.' Three years previously (*Child Care*, vol. 17, no. 3, 1963, p. 108) Joan D. Cooper, a Children's Officer, had posed a series of searching questions, introduced by simply asking: 'What do the new small Homes really provide, and what were they intended to provide?' These questions still await an answer.

[1] Such Homes are usually situated on a housing estate, where seven to ten children of varying ages and both sexes are cared for by a house mother. Usually she is married and her husband follows his own occupation outside the Home.

5. Practical implications

a. *Policy and administration*

Three comparatively recent developments may lead to a decrease in the number of residential Homes: the increasing emphasis on preventive work to reduce the number of children who need to come into care; the growth of the concept of community care in the medical and social services which is also likely to influence thinking in the field of residential child care; and the difficulty of recruiting residential staff partly because the number of single women has greatly diminished since the war and also because they tend to marry at a progressively lower age. Partly, too, rising economic standards together with a greater demand for leisure, are making residential work increasingly unattractive.

To be effective, preventive work has to be undertaken as early as possible; also it needs to be allied with a number of supportive measures for 'vulnerable' families, such as special allowances for one-parent families, a variety of day care facilities, 'enrichment programmes' for the children and the like. Similarly, to make community care a reality rather than an attractive slogan, requires an expansion of ancillary services and an acceptance of the need for long-term support in the case of some families if they are to remain together.

It is of course possible, that increased and improved preventive services may temporarily have the opposite effect—namely bringing more children into short-term substitute care. Two sets of reasons would be likely to operate: first, needs are being identified both earlier and more systematically because of more skilful casework done in greater depth; and secondly, temporary substitute care is being used in a therapeutic way as part of a definite treatment plan to help the whole family. Both these circumstances are the result of the changing emphasis from custodial, residential, long-term care to therapeutic, community-based prevention and rehabilitation. A very similar phenomenon was found when a more adequate number of places was being provided in special schools for educationally subnormal children: the waiting list then lengthened rather than shortened because of undiagnosed or unmet needs being discovered; also, those concerned with referral were encouraged to do so more readily once adequate provision became available. However, these considerations do not invalidate the argument that only primary social prevention can reduce the number of children who are more or less permanently dependent on long-term public care.

There will, however—at least in the foreseeable future—always be thousands of children who cannot live with their own families. If the vigorous policy of boarding out is continued, those in Homes will consist of the hard core of long-stay cases with special problems, be they emotional, educational or physical. This will make it quite essential that residential staff are not only trained but well trained and highly skilled:

their task will be the more taxing, the more successful prevention manages to become.

Might a policy of weekly boarding be a possibility in a number of cases, more especially for older children? Among the advantages would be keeping the child in touch with his family since he would return home at weekends; a minimum of week-end work may make the recruitment of staff easier too. Such provision could be used also in conjunction with foster homes. Moreover, whether boarding schools, hostels or children's Homes, as they exist today, are still the most appropriate model, is open to exploration and experiment.

Three principles seem basic to any progressive policy of residential child care: that as far as possible parents, or parent-substitutes, remain involved and in touch with the child; and if there is no one in his family able and willing to do so (despite casework and financial support), then someone needs to be found who is prepared to take a continuing interest in the child on a long-term basis, even if fostering is an unlikely prospect. The second principle is the need for each child to be given, or to retain, a sense of personal identity and continuity; this must be built into the whole framework of residential child care. Thirdly, better co-ordination and co-operation between all services concerned with the care of children is essential; the continuing gulf between education and care has been particularly deplorable. Not only need assessment and diagnosis be improved and unified, but they must be seen as continuing processes—which are being tested by the effectiveness of treatment—rather than as once-and-for-all occurrences.

Administratively, the implementation of these principles calls on the one hand for greater unification and on the other hand for greater flexibility, variety and hence choice of provision. For example, women trained as housemothers and with experience of residential work, may after marriage be willing to become 'peripatetic housemothers' until they start a family of their own; then they may be prepared to provide 'emergency short-stay foster homes', especially once their own children start school.

Or, to give another example, certain schools in each locality may provide a greatly lengthened day for children whose parent(s) can look after them only after working hours; the additional time in school would be devoted to the kinds of activities available to the child from a 'good' home: a wide range of leisure pursuits, including a variety of hobbies, music or dancing lessons, the provision of games, books etc.; older children would benefit from having available quiet rooms for doing homework. Ideally there would be a mixed staff of teachers, child care and youth workers.

Remedial teaching could also be provided for pupils whose needs are not being fully met during the ordinary school day. At first glance this might appear to 'punish' those whose attainments are poor by giving some further teaching; however, such schemes have been successfully

instituted in several large children's homes: not only did the children attend these special lessons regularly but there was keen competition for them, to the point of demanding that this help be continued during holidays.

School holidays, especially the long summer one, present a problem both for children who need 'prolonged day care', if they are to remain at home, as well as those in residential care. Here the American custom of summer camps for the great majority of older school children might have something to offer. They could be staffed largely by students under the supervision of experienced staff of various kinds. Again, they provide an opportunity for 'enrichment programmes', both cultural and educational. Judging by the experience in the United States in the last two years, such ventures are welcomed, and responded to, by parents and children alike.

b. *Recruitment and training*

More might be done to harness the latent idealism and affection for children among adolescent girls so as to attract them into the residential child care field. Many whose hopes of becoming teachers or nurses are disappointed, may well be potential recruits. Is enough done to make known the possibilities in this field and the satisfactions, as well as the challenge, of child care work? Need the professional image be improved? Are promising candidates lost because recruiting procedures are not sufficiently flexible? For example, when the minimum age of entry is eighteen, while the school leaving age is fifteen, or even sixteen years, girls get settled in other jobs in the intervening years.

There is room for various experimental schemes but the following illustrates what might be done.[1] A two-year course was instituted by the former L.C.C. for 'cadet housemothers': the entry age was sixteen years, a small salary was paid and practical experience of periods of supervised work in small and large Homes was combined with theoretical instruction at an institute for further education, supplemented by a range of visits. The scheme proved immediately successful.

Another possible pool for recruitment on an increased scale are married women, particularly those whose children have grown up. Just as schools and hospitals have had to accept the increasing employment of married women as a necessity, so in residential child care; indeed it is true to say that there the welcome has been less reluctant. But, as in hospitals, hours of work present some difficulty since house staff are most needed when married women wish to be with their own families. A system of shift- and part-time work is therefore inevitable, even though it is a second-best, and worse than that, for very young children.

There is another analogy with teaching which needs to be considered: since the war, refresher courses as well as post-basic training courses, leading to positions of greater responsibility, have been provided on an

[1] For its description we are indebted to Mr T. G. Randall.

increasing scale. In most cases, teachers are nowadays seconded for such courses on full pay and the longest last up to a full academic year. They are available at many universities and colleges of education. In child care, and particularly for residential staff, this need for further training and for bringing theoretical knowledge up-to-date, is equally important.[1] Incidentally, the much wider provision of such courses would increase both the attractiveness and the status of the work.

Of course, by themselves increased and improved opportunities for further training are unlikely to raise the prestige of residential work sufficiently to attract the right type of recruit in the required number. For this to come about, the work itself needs to be reassessed in the light of current and future changes. 'The more effective primary and secondary prevention become, the more disturbed and handicapped will be the children who come into residential care. . . . In education it is now accepted practice that emotionally disturbed and otherwise handicapped pupils should be placed in much smaller groups than normal pupils if they are to be taught effectively and remedially. Similarly, it will have to be accepted in the child care field that small groups are essential for the children who will make up the future population of residential homes' (*Investment in Children*, Longmans, 1965, p. 149). A corollary is that conditions of work must be improved too: ancillary help, in the shape of cleaners and clerical help as well as mechanical aids, improved hours of work, better staff accommodation—all these would contribute to raising the prestige of this difficult and vital work.

Another change, which has begun to take place, may reduce to some extent the stress and strain of the work: this lies in the new relationship between residential and psychologically or psychiatrically trained staff. In the past this tended to be authoritarian, with the latter 'prescribing' the appropriate handling for the child by the former. Recently some specialists have started to explore a different role, namely, that of counsellor to the staff, rather than, or as well as, treating the child himself. By assuming this new role, the specialist not only helps to reduce tension among and between staff, and supports them through periods of crises with the children; but he also acts as a buffer and a bridge between the administrator, the field worker and the residential staff since, even at best, efficient administration and the effective care of disturbed children are uneasy bedfellows.

c. *Community attitudes*

Increased community care depends on greater community understanding. There is much room for improvement here. At present the man-in-the-street knows little about why children come into care and even less about what happens to them once they are separated from their families.

[1] At present advanced training courses for residential staff are available at Bristol and Newcastle.

Nor is the average general practitioner or teacher much better informed. Yet such understanding is essential to the success of preventive work: only if the problem family is tolerated in our midst; only if it is accepted that such families may need long-term support (semipermanent 'mental crutches' as it were); that nevertheless they may in many, if not most, cases be able to give their children a sense of security and belonging for which there is no wholly effective substitute; only then will preventive work and ideas such as 'compensatory and enrichment programmes' really become acceptable.

Increased community understanding is also essential for the recruitment of both staff and volunteers. If the latter are to be found on a much larger scale, service to and involvement with the community must become more broadly based than it has been hitherto (*Investment in Children*, Longmans 1965, p. 158). This might also narrow the 'social gap' between those who are giving and receiving. Another, even more difficult, issue is how in a world of increasingly complex professionalism, the best use is to be made of the untrained volunteer. What jobs is he (or more likely she) to do? Is he to be given some sort of in-service training? Should he be continuously supervised, and if so, by whom and how? These are just a few of the practical questions which will need thinking through, if volunteers are to play an increasing part in residential child care.

'Voluntary work doesn't require saints: the wish to help is a normal human urge we should exploit. . . . The volunteer may be used expediently to relieve an overworked professional social worker and to spread the benefits of that professional more widely over the community. Nearly all the social services—educational, probationary and even medical—are turning in this direction, with the growing reconciliation to the idea of auxiliaries. . . . The plea is not to look upon voluntary workers as persons who must be created and trained to fill grievous gaps in the ever-enlarging social services, but as ordinary citizens not at the moment overburdened by their family or other commitments and who therefore need a channel for the expression of their altruistic capacities, and could perform a useful social service at the same time' (Peter Scott, 'The biological need to help', *New Society*, 30 March 1967).

d. *Research*

The time seems to have come for research into residential child care to change its direction: the main focus in past years has been the effects of deprivation and institutionalisation on the child's development. Having shown that these are generally detrimental, attention need now be given to how best to ameliorate unfavourable consequences. In one sense, it is irrelevant to tease out the exact extent to which children may already be damaged by their experiences prior to coming into care. Instead enquiry should centre on questions such as these: what should be the aim of enrichment programmes for children of different ages? In

what areas of development are compensatory experiences most urgently needed? Who is to plan and grade such experiences? When is an individual and when a group approach more appropriate? What are the role and function of remedial work? How can children best be helped to understand and come to terms with inadequate or rejecting parents? In short, how can a therapeutic community be created so that children leave residential care emotionally and intellectually strengthened, rather than even more deficient or damaged than when they entered it?

The first stage in such a change of direction might well be to examine much more closely than hitherto what we do do and why we do it; why, for example, there are such great variations in practice from one part of the country to another (Packman, 1965; Home Office, 1967). To do so involves building into practice the means for continuing evaluation; this in turn has implications for the way records are being kept. An agreed basic, minimum pattern is essential to ensure comparability—on this both short- and long-term assessments depend. And since an individual child may well experience several types of substitute care—in Homes, hostels, hospitals and schools in different parts of the country—this suggested basic minimum pattern needs to be agreed upon on a wide front, if it is to be of maximum value.

Enquiry and evaluation must also become more long-term than they have been hitherto. The majority of studies, reviewed in this volume, took a 'once and for all' look, even though in some cases a long-term picture was built up retrospectively. However, this method has many flaws, the most important of which is perhaps the fallibility of memory. A longitudinal project, such as the National Child Development Study (1958 Cohort) is planned to be (see *11,000 Seven-year-olds*, 1966), makes it possible to follow up various special groups and compare their patterns of growth with that of 'normal' children of the same age, social background and health history.

If similar long-term studies were carried out in other countries, the perspective could become even wider. For example, the child rearing methods developed in the Israel Kibbutzim are a type of 'collective education' unique in the world. From earliest infancy, the child establishes a close relationship not only with his biological parent but also with a mother-substitute, his nurse in the children's house. Far from leading to institutionalisation, this method of child rearing seems to provide a system of socialisation which makes for positive emotional adjustment. Kibbutz child care essentially divides the three main parental functions, delegating two of them to professional educators: physical care and disciplinary aspects are the responsibility of professionally trained staff; companionship (playing with and talking to the child, encouraging the development of interests, hobbies, etc.) is shared by the parents who are enabled by a system of communal living to spend daily two or three hours simply being with their child. In many

eastern European countries there is also a divided pattern of responsibility because of the pressure for women's labour. What are the short- and long-term effects of such systems of child-rearing on children's emotional, social and intellectual development?

At present the sceptic who doubts that effective preventive or compensatory programmes are a practical and economic proposition, has an easy task. The dearth of systematic and reliable evaluations is as obvious as it is deplorable. Much closer co-operation needs to be developed between the 'doer' and the 'user' of research: it should be the prerogative of the administrator and practitioner to pose the problems of greatest concern to them; then it becomes the task of the research worker to translate their questions into terms that make them accessible to systematic enquiry.

Finally, there must be adequate feedback of information from the researcher to those who have assisted in a particular project, as well as an interpretation of findings in non-technical and, if at all possible, practical terms to all concerned with policy and practice. Of course, research cannot and should not say what ought to be done; nor what the order of priority should be among various courses of action. Its role is to indicate what consequences are likely to follow from different courses of action so that policies have a greater chance of being more effectively right (or less expensively wrong).

This book, together with its two companion volumes on adoption and foster care, are part of this effort to make research findings more readily available in the hope of stimulating both action and further research. Three things are needed: to co-ordinate existing research; to mount a series of long-term inquiries and surveys; and to set in train operational and development work so that experimental schemes and ideas can be properly worked through and evaluated. Only in this way can child care services be adapted to social and economic needs. Otherwise there is a danger, shared by all the social and welfare services, which was well summarised in *Welfare State and Welfare Society* (National Council for Social Service, 1967): 'Outmoded legislation and rigid administration may become increasingly ineffective as time goes on and may become obstacles to social progress.'

Conclusion

It has been said that the most difficult of all human activities is to change human attitudes. It is this and not lack of knowledge which is holding back advance. If even half of what is now clearly known were accepted with feeling and carried out with understanding by all, the picture of residential child care could be transformed. Of course, we need to know more. But meanwhile we need not, indeed cannot afford to, wait. The immediate and major problem is to will the means to translate into action what is already known.

5 Abstracts of completed research projects

1. General

Abstracts are listed in chronological order

DEVON C.C. CHILDREN'S COMMITTEE (1953) 'The illegitimate children of mental defectives'

DONNISON, D. V. (1954) 'The neglected child and the social services'

MACDONALD, M. (1954) 'Children placed by the Jewish Children's Bureau of Chicago in 1939 and in 1950–1952'

COMMITTEE ON ADOPTION AND SERVICES TO UNMARRIED MOTHERS, WELFARE AND HEALTH COUNCIL OF NEW YORK CITY (1955) 'Children deprived of adoption'

DAVID, M., ANCELIN, J. and APPELL, G. (1957) 'Les Colonies Maternelles' (Holiday Centres)

LEONARD, P. T. (1957) 'A study of the admission of children into care in an English industrial town'

CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY (1958) 'Study of children in 100 families who were returned home from temporary care'

JARRETT, P. (1959) 'A comparative study of the implementation of the 1948 Children Act in four local authorities'

MAAS, H. and ENGLER, R. (1959) 'Children in need of parents'

MITCHELL, L. M. (1959) 'The Children Act, 1948: problems arising in the operation of its provisions'

COHAGAN, G. B. (1960) 'Adoptability. A study of 100 children in foster care'

DAVID, M. (1961) 'Séparations précoces' (Early separations)

CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY, HOMEMAKER SERVICE (1962) 'Nine-to twenty-four-hour Homemaker Service project'

GALE, J. A. B. (1963) 'Non-European children in care'

BOSS, P. (1965) 'Committals to the care of a fit person'

PACKMAN, J. (1965) 'Variations in the number of children in care throughout England and Wales'

DR BARNARDO'S (1966) 'Racial integration and Barnardo's'

FERGUSON, T. (1966) 'Children in care—and after'

JENKINS, S. and SAUBER, M. (1966) 'Paths to child placement'

DEVON COUNTY COUNCIL CHILDREN'S COMMITTEE (1953) *The illegitimate children of mental defectives*. Operational Research Report No. 5. Duplicated. Also in *International Child Welfare Review*, 1954, **8**, no. 3, 129–34.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

An examination by four Local Authorities of the incidence of mental defect in unmarried mothers, of the provisions made for the illegitimate babies of defectives, and of the children's subsequent progress.

SAMPLE AND METHOD

Records of the children in care in the four areas were scrutinised. 129 illegitimate children of defectives were examined and rated 'good', 'fair' or 'poor' on intellectual performance and emotional health; these children were all in care, and excluded were those adopted, certified, or removed to mental deficiency institutions, i.e. the most successful and the least successful.

FINDINGS

1. The children comprised 5·1% of all children in care in the total area. This suggests that between four and five hundred such children are received into care annually in England and Wales, and at the time of the study the number was not decreasing.

2. 81% of the mothers were in institutions at the time of the birth. Nearly half had had more than one illegitimate child. About 20% left the child in care but themselves went back into the community; hostels for these mothers would have avoided the need for separation from their children.

3. Most of the children came into care as babies. Less than one in ten had any substantial hope of living with the mother, and less than one in four was visited regularly. This suggests that about three out of every four could be settled in substitute homes without objections from their mothers.

4. 60% of the children were boarded out and 40% in institutions.

5. About one-third of the children were rated intellectually average, rather less than a third needed special schooling and slightly more than a third lay between these two groups.

6. In emotional adjustment they were rated 'poor', 'fair', and 'good' in almost equal proportions, with a slight preponderance of 'poor' adjustments. Foster children obtained better ratings than those in institutions.

7. Comparison with a small group of control children in care revealed that the children of defectives received slightly lower intellectual and emotional ratings.

DONNISON, DAVID V. (1954) *The neglected child and the social services.* Manchester University Press. 152 pp.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A study of families in which children were neglected or deprived of a normal home life, and a consideration of what could be done by existing or new social services to give them a better upbringing in their own homes.

SAMPLE

180 children from 118 families coming into long-term care (i.e. likely to exceed six months) in Manchester (131) and Salford (49) during the first six months in 1951. 109 of the Manchester children and 18 of the Salford children were received into care under Section 1 of the Children Act, 1948. The remaining children were committed to care by juvenile courts under Fit Person orders.

METHOD

Information about the families concerned was supplied by the Children's Officers of the two cities. All the statutory authorities and most of the

voluntary organisations working in the two cities were then asked to say which of the families had ever been known to them, and in most cases such families were discussed with the caseworkers who had visited them and relevant case papers were studied. This information was made available on condition that no one should be identifiable in any published results. The study was therefore conducted in the impersonal terms of case numbers.

The families were then analysed into groups by various criteria, such as the overt reason for entry into care (often misleading), the degree of neglect (determined by the application of seven tests devised by the author[1]) and by the number of social services (apart from Health and Children's Departments) known to have helped them.

FINDINGS

1. *The families*

Of the 118 families from which the sample children were drawn, in 43% one parent, though alive and physically fit, was taking no responsibility for the children when they came into care; in 14% neither parent was taking responsibility; 17% showed none of the seven indications of neglect quoted above; 62% showed from one to three such indications; and 21% showed four or more. More than half the children came from broken homes and one-fifth from families showing all the signs of appalling neglect.

At least 65 families had received National Assistance; many had owed rent and some had been evicted; in many cases parents had been imprisoned, or other members of the family had been in prison, Borstal, approved school or on probation, and others had children at schools for mental, sensory or physical defect or for emotional difficulties. Of the 118 families only 10 were not known to have had help from any agency other than Health and Children's Departments, 61 had had help from up to 3 other agencies, 46 from 4 to 9 agencies, and one family had been given help by more than ten.

2. *The social services*

Despite the enormous time devoted by so many agencies—National Assistance, health, mental health, N.S.P.C.C., housing, education, F.S.U., etc.—families with acute problems frequently break up and their children come into care. This is because the help given by each agency is specialised, and none is equipped to deal with the family as a

[1] The seven tests were: (1) visits by Health Visitor every 4 weeks or less over a period of at least 3 months; (2) visits by School Welfare Officer every week over a period of at least 2 months; (3) the opening of a case by the N.S.P.C.C.; (4) presence of 2 or more illegitimate children; (5) desertion by either parent for a month or more; (6) imprisonment of parent since birth of first child; (7) father fit but out of work and drawing National Assistance for a month or more.

whole. Indeed, they sometimes give contradictory advice because of their specialised approach, and sometimes the family's need does not bring them within the scope of any one agency. These difficulties cannot be remedied by the exchange of information commended to local authorities in the Joint Circular on Co-ordination issued by the Ministries of Health and Education and the Home Office in 1950; they are largely inherent in the limitation of the various agencies' spheres of action.

The voluntary agencies, especially N.S.P.C.C. and F.S.U., gave much help both directly and in co-operation with statutory services, but like the latter, were frequently limited by the terms of their function, and additionally by shortage of funds. Also, they looked for rather more co-operation from the client than did the statutory agencies, and this was not always forthcoming.

Co-operation between the social services, whether in terms of simple referral or of consultation to reach an agreed line of action, varied widely in extent, partly due to the different functions of the various agencies. It seemed, however, that Health Departments were less apt to consult than were other agencies, and this was more marked in Manchester than in Salford—15% of cases in Manchester and 45% in Salford were discussed by Health Visitors with other workers. School Welfare Officers and Probation Officers also co-operated more freely in Salford than in Manchester. Co-operation was closest where workers were on friendly terms. The author suggests that the smaller size of Salford made informal contact easier, and further that the very size of a large organisation encourages an "esprit de corps" within a department which disinclines workers to co-operate with those outside it.

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Some families cannot be fitted for normal life by material aid alone, or by support from several agencies each concerned with only one aspect of their trouble. They need the personal influence of someone prepared to help them in every way required. To make such comprehensive personal service effective:

1. Individual caseloads should be small (not more than 25 families).
2. One worker should be responsible for the whole family, calling in specialists as needed who should visit only after consultation with the worker in charge.
3. This comprehensive help should be available to a family as soon as the complexity of its problems so indicates.
4. Workers should stay in one district long enough to win the trust of the residents.
5. The work of all services must be closely co-ordinated.

6. When improvement begins, support should not be withdrawn at once, but should be maintained long enough to prevent relapse.

7. Workers must have the right character and experience, and enough independence of action to experiment with new methods.

The author favours neither the selection of one specific existing agency to assume this comprehensive function, nor the creation of a new one, both of which courses would need legislation, but the selection in each agency of staff with the right personal qualities, a lightening of their case-load, an improvement of their training, and the assignment of cases calling for a comprehensive approach to such a worker from whichever agency was best fitted to take general charge in the circumstances of each individual case. The increased staff cost of such a procedure should be shared between agencies on agreed terms. The author already sees signs of such developments, and regards his suggestion less as a recommendation than as a prediction.

MACDONALD, MARY (1954) 'Children placed by the Jewish Children's Bureau of Chicago in 1939 and in 1950–1952', *Social Service Review*, **28**, no. 3, 290–307.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A comparison of backgrounds of children taken into care in Chicago in 1939 and in 1952.

SAMPLE

Two samples of 60 cases (from the contrasted years) from the files of the Jewish Children's Bureau. The recent sample consisted of the last 60 children placed in 1952. For the early sample, 1939 was chosen as a year not unduly affected either by war or depression; children were chosen randomly.

METHOD

Case records were read by a number of workers and a form filled out for each child.

FINDINGS

The most significant differences found between the two samples were:

1. Proportionately more of the recently placed children came from intact homes, leaving brothers and sisters in them. Proportionately more were placed because of their own maladjustment.

2. Proportionately fewer of the recently placed children were placed because of parents' illness or death.

3. Family backgrounds of the two groups appeared to be similar.

CONCLUSION

There had been a marked shift in emphasis in the reasons for placement between 1939 and 1952.

COMMITTEE ON ADOPTION AND SERVICES TO UNMARRIED MOTHERS, WELFARE AND HEALTH COUNCIL OF NEW YORK CITY (1955) *Children deprived of adoption*. Duplicated. 22 pp.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

To investigate the number and characteristics of children in long-term care for whom adoption might be possible. Also an inquiry into the legal and social barriers to their adoption and the community resources and action needed to solve the problem.

SAMPLE

773 children of all ages in foster or institutional care in New York City, selected (see Method) from a larger sample of 4,021 children in boarding homes and institutions (the total caseload of 14 child care agencies). The children included a variety of religious and ethnic groups, and the larger sample constituted 26·7% of all dependent and neglected children in New York City in December 1954.

METHOD

Questionnaires were sent to the 14 agencies to gather the following facts: (*a*) Analysis of the total caseload. (*b*) The number of children for whom adoption would be a sound plan, divided into those legally available and those not available. Reasons for the latter. (*c*) Characteristics of the above. (Age, sex, ethnic group, family status.) (*d*) Possible placement plans for these children.

Members of the research team visited the agencies and discussed the questionnaire. On the basis of the data submitted, it was decided that adoption could be a sound plan for 773 children, i.e. 19·2% of the original sample of 4,021 children.

FINDINGS

1. Of the original sample of 4,021, 42·2% were white, 54·7% Negro, the remainder Puerto Rican and other nationalities. 76·3% had been referred by the Department of Welfare, the others by courts and private sources. 88·4% were in boarding homes, the rest in institutions.

2. The 'adoptable' group contained a higher proportion of Negro and Puerto Rican children than the total sample. 300 of the 773 'adoptable' children were under 7 years. 53% were boys.

3. Of the 773 children for whom adoption was considered a sound plan, 141 were legally available. Some had been rejected by adoption agencies, some adoptive homes had failed, and others were with good foster parents who were unable to adopt. 46·1% of this group were full orphans, 48·2% had been surrendered by their parents, and 5·7% were foundlings.

4. The other 632 children were not available for adoption. 47·5% were unavailable because parents would not consent to adoption; in 17·1% of cases parents had not contacted the agency for over a year; in another 14·5% of cases parents' whereabouts were unknown. Mental illness prevented securing consent in 12% of cases, and varied reasons accounted for the unavailability of the rest. If made legally available, 157 of the 773 children could have been adopted by their foster parents. Many of these were happily placed and ignored by their own parents.

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

If the sample is representative, about one-fifth of all children in long-term care in New York City may be considered suitable for adoption. Adoption services in the area are evidently insufficient to meet the needs, partly due to staff shortages and heavy existing caseloads. The Committee comment on the confusion and legal complications surrounding the surrender of a child, and the cost to the taxpayer of maintaining these children.

The report recommends:

1. Improved casework services.

2. More skill in diagnosis and prognosis.

3. A more workable legal machinery to free children from irresponsible parents.

4. The setting up of a public adoption service, expansion of existing adoptive resources and a more realistic approach to the situation.

DAVID, MYRIAM, ANCELIN, JACQUELINE and APPELL, GENEVIÈVE (1957) 'Les Colonies Maternelles' (Holiday Centres), *Informations Sociales*, **8**, 825–93.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

An intensive qualitative study of the behaviour of 18 young children staying for a few weeks at one 'Colonie Maternelle' (holiday centre for children from over-burdened families) in France, to obtain insight into the nature of the child's immediate experience and how he adapts to it.

SAMPLE

Ten children systematically observed, eight intermittently; aged 3 to 6 years. For most children this was their first separation.

METHOD

Families were interviewed by social workers before and after placement. Children were observed throughout the day by three observers for several hours at a time; notes were made then or afterwards, and observations were discussed among the research team. Records were studied and discussions carried out with staff of the Colonie. Observed behaviour is described and case histories given.

FINDINGS

1. Reactions to staying at the Colonie fell into three categories: open distress; disorientation; easy initial adaptation, usually followed by distress. Detailed histories are given of children showing these reactions.

2. All children, even older ones, reacted to their stay with some intensity; most showed considerable disturbance at some time, but had reached their usual level of adjustment by the last week of their stay. Disturbance was easily missed by staff.

3. After-effects: two children appeared to have definitely benefited by their stay; two showed signs of lasting disturbances afterwards; the rest were not greatly affected. Most children, when asked, did not want to return to the Colonie next year.

4. Factors affecting adjustment: establishment of a tie with an understanding adult was the most important factor in good adjustment, and children who showed open distress found this most easily. The presence of siblings was a palliative for some children, but was not very important. Routine and discipline were well adapted to children's needs and helped their adjustment. Parental visits caused temporary distress to children; many children used the sick-bay for minor illnesses, apparently seeking

comfort rather than specific remedy. Children with poor backgrounds and previous separations appeared to experience more disturbance than the others.

CONCLUSIONS

Short-term placements can be successfully used for children under six, but only as a last resort and only with provision of ample attention and understanding. Placements might have been avoided in some cases; for others, a day nursery or stay with relatives would have been a better solution. Where temporary placement is inevitable, efforts should be made to give each child individual attention from one nurse; and one staff member should have the special task of observing and directing the psychological development of the children.

LEONARD, PETER T. (1957) 'A study of the admission of children into care in an English industrial town', M.Sc.(Econ.) thesis, University of London.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A survey of decisions made by a Children's Department regarding applications for care. The questions posed were: (*a*) Why were some children admitted and others not? (*b*) What were the situations of all families six months after their applications?

SAMPLE

100 consecutive applications for care involving 186 children between 1st December, 1954, and 25th June, 1955, of which 46 (involving 97 children) were accepted.

METHOD

Families requesting care for their children were classified into 5 groups:

(*a*) Temporary breakdown of external environment. (Confinement or hospitalisation of mother, accommodation problems.)

(*b*) Long-term breakdown of external environment. (Illness or death of mother.)

(*c*) Particular problems of internal environment. (Parental estrangement, illegitimacy, children out of control.)

(*d*) General breakdown of internal environment. (Neglect, social disintegration.)

(*e*) Complete absence of home. (All unmarried mothers.)

Requests for care were investigated by a scrutiny of case records. 6 months later, information was obtained from the 93 families who could be contacted by visits, and from local Education and Health Departments and welfare workers. Families were then classified as improved, deteriorated, or unchanged.

Results are described and tabulated, and a case history of each family in the sample given.

FINDINGS

46 applications (97 children) had been accepted, as follows:

Group (*a*): out of 41 applications, 20 were accepted. Group (*b*): out of 5 applications, 2 were accepted. Group (*c*): out of 31 applications, 14 were accepted. Group (*d*): out of 18 applications, 7 were accepted. Group (*e*): out of 5 applicants, 3 were accepted.

1. *Reasons for decisions*

(*a*) Children admitted largely on following grounds: no one else to care for them; one or both parents deserted; child maladjusted; parental neglect; mother unable to provide a home.

(*b*) Children refused admittance largely on following grounds: friends or relatives coped; accommodation or day nursery found; parents persuaded to face their responsibilities; admittance considered as furthering marital breakdown and as no answer to problems.

Similar cases resulted in different decisions, though all workers agreed on the negative value of removing a child from its home, and on the importance of preventive work.

2. *State of families after* 6 *months*

93 of the 100 families were contacted and of these, 33 families altogether were considered improved, the majority from group (*a*). 13 had deteriorated; 47 remained unchanged. There was no apparent significance in the frequency of visits by welfare workers.

Of the 46 families whose children were *admitted*, 16 still had their children in care, because of parental estrangement, illegitimacy, or multiple problems. 4 of these families appeared improved, 7 deteriorated, 24 unchanged. The other 30 had their children back with them; 8 were considered improved, 3 deteriorated, 19 unchanged. Improvement was generally associated with rehousing and better health, deterioration often with fathers' inability to manage single-handed.

Of the 47 applications *refused*, 17 families had made alternative plans for their children, and 29 looked after them themselves. Situations seemed improved for 6 families in the former group and 15 in the latter. The majority were again judged to be unchanged.

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Admission depends partly on the assessment of the individual Child Care Officer; initial investigations varied surprisingly in their thoroughness, and fuller investigation might sometimes have produced a different outcome.

2. Small caseloads encourage more thoughtful and thorough casework techniques. Time is needed to reflect on diagnosis and treatment. Some families could have benefited from more intensive casework.

3. Facilities available also affect decisions to admit.

The author stresses the importance of (*a*) more time for careful decisions; and (*b*) fuller co-operation between Local Authority Departments. He suggests that analysis of the data involved in admitting a child into care may assist in providing material for improving the casework skills of Child Care Officers.

CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY (1958) *Study of children in a hundred families who were returned home from temporary care.* Report by the Foster Care Services of the Children's Aid Society, New York City, in co-operation with the Bureau of Child Welfare, Department of Welfare, City of New York. Duplicated. 10 pp.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

To determine whether a Homemaker Service could have been used to prevent the removal of children from their homes for temporary care. (The Homemaker Service is defined as the combined services of a housekeeper and caseworker working with parent(s) and children to strengthen family life.)

SAMPLE

229 children of 100 families in New York who were returned home after temporary care. Of the 100 families, 45 were Negro, 54 white; 52 Roman Catholic, 35 Protestant, 10 Jewish; 62 were married couples, 6 divorced, and 32 of the children were illegitimate. Only 39 families had adequate incomes. In 59 cases there was only one parent in the family group. Of the children, 11 were over 13, 59 under 2 years.

METHOD

Case records were read by professional staff of the Homemaker Service, and the results analysed to discover what circumstances led to placement, and whether provision of a homemaker could have allowed children to stay at home.

FINDINGS

1. Requests for care had been received from parents, relatives, hospitals, welfare centres, police and courts.

2. All families had been faced with an emergency situation. In 58 cases, the mother was in hospital. In 12 cases, children were deserted. In other families the mother was unable to cope, and many children needed short-term care while other plans were made.

3. It was considered that 143 children from 61 families could definitely have remained at home with the aid of the Homemaker Service. Of these, 10 families would have required an 8-hour service (father at home in the evenings); 7 a 9–16 hour service (irregular working hours of father); 29 a 24-hour service (mostly one-parent families).

4. A further 40 children of 18 families might possibly have been helped to remain at home. 15 of these had very poor housing conditions.

5. 67 parents were not acquainted with the Homemaker Service. 10 families had requested help of this kind, and 24 had considered using it.

6. Considerable suffering was caused, both to the children and their parents, by the separations.

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

There is a pressing need for more Homemaker Service. The following adaptations would have been required to enable some of the sample to have been cared for at home:

(*a*) Considerable flexibility in homemakers' working hours.

(*b*) Provision of services to children in one-parent families and to one-child families for as long as needed.

(*c*) Placement of homemaker in poor housing conditions.

(*d*) Immediate placement of homemaker in emergencies.

(*e*) Auxiliary corps of homemakers available to police.

Many children might be enabled to remain at home through a service of this kind. It would require skilled casework personnel to determine when Homemaker Service is the best plan, and a broad expansion of the service in public and private agencies to meet the special needs of each family.

JARRETT, PATRICIA (1959) 'A comparative study of the implementation of the 1948 Children Act in four local authorities', M.A. thesis, University of Nottingham.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A detailed descriptive study of the organisation of child care services in four Local Authorities in 1958, with a view to determining whether and how the Children Act is being implemented.

SAMPLE

All workers concerned with child care in four Local Authorities in England, including Committee members, child care staff, residential staff and staff of allied social agencies.

METHOD

The author interviewed (formally and informally) child care staff, visited Children's Homes and foster homes, attended court hearings and Committee Meetings, and worked as relief house-parent in Reception Homes. Impressions gathered from informal talks and interviews were recorded, and data from formal interviews entered on a schedule and incorporated into the text.

Child Care Officers filled in time sheets and from these a study of their working time was compiled.

The following statistics are tabulated: staff employed in the four Authorities, ratio of staff to children, staff turnover, numbers of children in care, reasons for coming into and leaving care, age and sex of children in care, children in Approved Schools, voluntary Homes and hostels, children boarded-out, cost of boarding-out, number and types of residential Homes, adoption placements, financing of the child care service, etc.

FINDINGS

1. *Research considerations*

(*a*) Inadequate case records of children hampered the research. Official statistics were sometimes found to be misleading or incomplete.

(*b*) The author notes that she quickly became aware of the gap between theoretical and practical standards in assessing child care.

(*c*) In three of the four Departments there was some goodwill towards research.

2. *Children's Committees*. Relations between Committees and child care staff varied from good to poor. Although Committee members were not expert in child care nor familiar with the details of the work, they had the last word in choosing senior staff.

3. *Finance*. Children's Officers were more satisfied with the money spent on children's services than their subordinates; some, however, would have liked funds for more staff and for preventive work. Misgivings were

expressed by some respondents about the Block Grant system, though it was felt that this need not necessarily be disadvantageous to the child care service.

4. *Staffing.* One Department was much more fully staffed than the other three, and was more interested in training, research and experiment; two of the other Departments, however, claimed that they had no need for more staff. At every level good staff was hard to obtain. There was some conflict between the younger, trained social workers and the older ones. There was an overall need for more clerical workers.

5. *Child Care Officers*

(*a*) Turnover: this was high, especially in one Department. Although most Departments assigned cases to the Officers by areas, continuity of contact with the children was not very good because of the high turnover.

(*b*) Working conditions: most Officers were satisfied with their salaries but not their working hours (about 9¾ hours a day). Weekend and evening work was common, and it was hard to plan for leisure. The average number of casework interviews was 4·4 per day, lasting 33 minutes each; younger Officers felt they needed more time for real casework. The proportion of time spent on various duties was about the same in all four Departments. Delegation of responsibility to C.C.O's was influenced by the size and area of their Department and the attitude of the Children's Officer in charge. The majority felt that they were not given enough responsibility and disliked attending meetings to which they were not allowed to contribute much.

6. *Co-operation with other agencies*

(*a*) The Courts: although the author and respondents felt that lawyers and magistrates were often harsh and uninformed about children, there was usually agreement with their actual decisions.

(*b*) Other social agencies: most respondents named the mental health services as the most inadequate. National Assistance Boards were considered unhelpful. Good relations with the N.S.P.C.C. and with Housing Departments were important to all Departments. All Departments held meetings to co-ordinate welfare services for problem families, etc., and these were considered moderately useful. Few respondents were in favour of 'all-purpose' social workers.

7. *Preventive work.* All Children's Officers said they would not take children into care if it could be avoided; some would accept short-stay cases more easily (during mother's confinement, etc.). Preventive work was sometimes passed to other agencies (e.g. Family Service Units), and private charities were sometimes used for small grants. One Department was much more active in preventive work than the others.

8. *Records and filing.* In some of the Departments these were inadequate. In all Departments children's interests seemed sometimes to have been sacrificed to administrative tidiness.

9. *Children in care: rehabilitation and after-care.* All Departments in varying degrees did rehabilitation work with families of children in care. Child Care Officers had very little time to spend with young people over 18 who had been discharged from care.

10. *Hostel accommodation.* Officers agreed that one of their greatest problems was the care of adolescents. Few stayed in Homes after 15, but were boarded in lodgings, hostels, etc, which were not considered to be good in the areas studied. Respondents suggested that the number of difficult adolescents was a result of a poorer child care service when the children were growing up.

11. *Boarding out.* Boarding-out rates depended partly on the Department's selectivity and partly on the number of employed housewives; homes were in short supply in the cities but not in the country. Records of refused foster-parent applicants were not kept. Most respondents felt there should be no financial gain in fostering. All Departments used similar publicity methods, and all attempted careful investigation and matching of child to home, but one (in which fostering breakdowns were taken lightly) made more hurried placements than the others. Two Children's Officers stressed that there was a new need for short-term fostering with rehabilitation.

12. *Residential accommodation.* Respondents felt that Homes suffered from under-staffing and high staff turnover and that some residential workers were unsuitable. Difficulties between Officers and residential staff were caused by differing educational standards and lack of time for discussion. Residential workers suffered from a lack of leisure, privacy and suitable surroundings for their own children. The less good houseparents were often those most approved by the Committee. Difficult children tended to be shuffled from Home to Home.

13. *Reception Homes.* All Departments had Reception Homes, though one of them was run as a semi-residential Home. Average length of stay in the others was six weeks. All four took other cases than children received under Section 1. Two of the Homes were permissive, but in both the house parents were leaving because of disillusionment and emotional strain; in the other two Homes the houseparents were more elderly and strict, and this seemed to be the kind of worker that tends to stay in the service. Many children probably liked the old-fashioned, undemanding type of Home. Daily care of the children was generally in the hands of assistants, but they did not attend case conferences.

14. *General*

(*a*) The way the Act is implemented depends partly on the climate of opinion on the Council, the calibre of Council members, and their

relations with the Children's Officer; but the most important factor is the personality of the Children's Officer.

(*b*) Although old-fashioned methods could be associated with good care and modern methods were sometimes associated with poor staff relationships, the author feels that modern attitudes to child care led to a better choice of foster-homes, more preventive work, etc.

(*c*) Although Children's Officers felt that child care has greatly improved since the Children Act, some would have liked more scope for preventive work, and would like the age of criminal responsibility raised.

(*d*) There are staffing difficulties throughout the child care service; the turnover of C.C.O's leads to discontinuity in the children's relationships, and on the residential side there is a vicious circle of low standards, disillusionment, and staff wastage.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. More preventive work and family casework. This should leave only a hard core of children in care and more time could be given to them.

2. More Reception Homes.

3. More time for trained casework; more delegation by Children's Officers to their subordinates. Home Office Inspectors of experience to oversee Children's Homes, rather than local Committee members. More training, in-service if necessary, and supervision of casework by specialists.

4. Streamlining of equipment and methods in offices and residential Homes.

5. Fuller records and statistics for policy decisions and research.

MAAS, HENRY and ENGLER, RICHARD (1959) *Children in need of parents*. C.U.P., New York. 462 pp.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A large-scale investigation of substitute care for children in nine different American communities, with the aim of clarifying conditions which keep children in care and prevent them from being adopted. In each community the relevant legal systems, welfare agency networks, and community attitudes were studied. Agency case records were used and supplemented by interviews, study of legal codes, etc. Sponsored by the Child Welfare League of America and supported by the Field Foundation.

The enquiry was sociologically orientated, and underlying it was the assumption that all children are better placed in adoptive homes than in other forms of substitute care.

SAMPLE

In nine communities, 4,281 children's case records were extensively studied and 882 of them selected for more intensive study. Case records of children's natural parents, foster parents, and adoptive parents were made use of where available. Interview material with about 200 key figures in the communities provided background material. Two communities were rural; two small towns; two metropolitan areas; two large cities; and one small New England town.

Children separated from parents because of delinquency or illness were excluded, also children in care for less than 30 days.

Every child in care on 1 April 1957 was entered on a 'white' card and every child leaving care for his own home or adoption between January and June entered on a 'blue' card. Five separate rosters of children were then set up for each community: children in foster families, in institutions, in adoptive homes (either on 1 April or between January and June), returned to own homes (between January and June), and left care for other reasons (between January and June). In each community, a sample of 25 was chosen from each roster by random numbers (unless there were 25 or fewer on the roster).

METHOD

1. *Obtaining and recording information*

(*a*) On children and parents (natural, foster or adoptive): basic data were available on roster cards; for fuller data, a 39-page schedule (outline available in text) was filled in by research staff for all sampled cases. The schedule had been developed during two previous pilot projects. The same workers visited paired communities, to eliminate observer bias.

(*b*) On legal system: state laws were perused and codes relevant to child placement compiled (available in text). Other sources of information were tapped: records of each child's legal status, opinions of placement workers on local practice, and partly unstructured interview with local judge.

(*c*) On agencies: a schedule covering many aspects of agency procedure (described in text) was filled out for every agency after interviews with agency spokesmen, welfare workers, and board members. When writing up material, inter-agency factors were concentrated on and sociometric diagrams of agency networks constructed. A 'collaboration index' was compiled for agencies in each community ranging from 0·21 to 0·56.

(*d*) On communities: census reports, handbooks, encyclopaedias, etc. were consulted, and community leaders given partly unstructured interviews to gain understanding of local attitudes to child care. Census data available in text.

2. *Analysis of data*

(*a*) *Descriptive.* History, geographical situation, and type of population described and contrasted for each pair of communities. Extracts from interviews quoted. Child care practices, legal systems, and agency networks described. Composite case histories given of typical fostered and adopted children and adoptive parents. Conclusions drawn from correlation of sociological features and child care practices in the contrasted communities.

(*b*) *Quantitative.* Percentages and tables given throughout.

FINDINGS

1. *Community differences in child care*

(*a*) A 'separating' social orientation was associated with institutional care, an 'interdependent' orientation with foster care.

(*b*) An 'ascribed status' orientation tended to produce a static care situation, and 'achievement' orientation planning for better care.

(*c*) A 'personalised' orientation was more accepting of the child in care where he did not seem deviant, but more rejecting where he did seem deviant; an 'impersonalised' orientation was more accepting of the child if he was used to this attitude, but more rejecting where he was not.

(*d*) In a very small homogeneous community, families and children receiving welfare are conspicuous and excluded.

(*e*) In a small, personalised, separating and homogeneous setting, there is denial of the need for child care.

(*f*) In a similar but larger setting, child care problems are not denied, but stock answers are provided for all problems.

(*g*) In a large heterogenous community, persons receiving welfare are less conspicuous, and different norms exist for each section of the community.

(*h*) In the largest and most complex settings, the child in care is least visibly deviant but may be lost in anonymity.

2. *Adoption*

(*a*) Adoption through agencies tended to go with the 'achievement', 'impersonalised' and 'interdependent' orientations.

(*b*) The major barrier to adoption was the wide socio-cultural gap existing in some communities between prospective parents and available children.

3. *Children in care*

(*a*) Most children in U.S. communities were in foster families rather than institutions, though this varied with community orientation.

(*b*) The average number of placements per child was 2 to 3, and most children were in care from 2 to 5 years.

(*c*) The longer children stayed in care, the less chance that they would leave it.

(*d*) About half the children in most communities had parents who had no plans for the child's future.

(*e*) Most parents of children in care were no longer married to each other.

(*f*) In most communities, social and psychological factors rather than poverty brought the children into care, and the relative importance of the former factors increased with the complexity of the community.

4. *Adopted children and foster children.* Adopted children were younger, free of psychological symptoms, had fewer disabilities, and were more often born out of wedlock than foster children. Foster children were more often from racial minorities, older, more handicapped and maladjusted. More than half seemed likely to spend most of their childhood in care.

5. *Adoptive parents.* Adopting couples were surprisingly similar in upbringing, status and outlook in all 9 communities. Adopters of handicapped or racially mixed children were older and of lower socio-economic status.

RECOMMENDATIONS (by Joseph H. Reid, Child Welfare League of America)

1. Diagnostic and preventive services need to be established for families about to break up.

2. The laws protecting the rights of parents who have virtually relinquished their children ought to be modified.

3. A more positive attitude towards adoption of 'not-perfect' children.

4. More contact between agencies and lower-income groups, who are unaware of adoption possibilities.

5. Relaxation of agency rules about adoptive parents' income, religious practice, etc.

6. Experiments in combining foster-care, therapy, and (later) adoption, and in making payments for a limited time to poorer adopters.

7. Exchange facilities (of information and available children) between agencies on a statewide and nationwide basis.

8. Research into the relative importance of staying together with siblings as against being adopted, where whole families are in care.

9. Better use of publicity and advertising.

10. Research into, and reorganisation of, long-term care where it is unavoidable.

11. More and better agency casework with parents, and better contact between agency and community.

12. Central governmental control of agencies.

13. Stricter licensing laws for agencies, ensuring adequate trained staff.

14. Scattered small institutions rather than large centralised ones, to enable children to keep in touch with their parents and the community.

15. Research into, and work for, unmarried mothers.

16. More money and more trained workers for social services.

MITCHELL, LILIAN M. (1959) 'The Children Act, 1948: problems arising in the operation of its provisions', Ph.D. thesis, University of Aberdeen.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A study of the provisions of the Children Act 1948, of its operation in Scotland and in particular in the City of Aberdeen, and a limited assessment of the outcome of its application to a sample of children in Aberdeen.

SAMPLE

Children in the care of Aberdeen L.A. in 1959. 250 children passing through a Reception Centre; 276 children in foster care; 245 children in residential care; 95 children for whom the Authority was acting as 'fit person'. These groups overlap considerably. Information is also given about the whole population of children in Scotland at the time of the study, and about a sample of 158 young people between 18 and 21 who had been in care.

Types of institution mentioned: 1 residential nursery, 11 L.A. homes, 17 voluntary homes, 2 psychiatric centres.

METHOD

The Children Act 1948 is analysed and discussed (53 pp.).

The operation of the Act in Aberdeen is described and figures tabulated. The following aspects are covered: the Reception Centre, fostering, residential care, the L.A. as 'fit person', protected children. The later success and adjustment of children committed to the care of the L.A. as 'fit person', and also of all children in care at the time, is assessed and tabulated. Reasons for coming into care and for discharge are tabulated. Case histories are given throughout.

FINDINGS

1. *Numbers of children in care, and reasons for coming into care.* The number of children in care in Aberdeen in 1958 was 9·5 per 1,000. The number reached a peak in 1954 and had declined slightly in 1958. 194 out of 273 admissions in 1958 were due to illness of parent, or maternity. 6 were due to unsatisfactory home conditions. 2 were offenders committed by Court Order. Figures for the whole of Scotland are also given.

2. *The Reception Centre.* The first 250 cases admitted to the Reception Centre (a small home for 12 children) are reviewed. There were more boys than girls. 42 children were below school age, 168 of school age, and 40 beyond school age. About half the children were rather undernourished, and only nine were in perfect health. The majority suffered from serious physical defects, and specialists had to be consulted for over half. Only 44% were considered suitable for fostering.

3. *Foster care.* A large number of respondents to advertisements for foster parents in Aberdeen were found seriously unsuitable and had to be rejected. Of those accepted, only 2 out of 263 were from Social Class 1. Out of 276 foster-children in 1959, 220 had had no change of placement; in this group, 76% were fostered for over two years, and some up to 15 years. Since most fostering breakdowns occur during the first two years, it could be assumed that less than half of the whole group of foster-children would eventually have had no change of placement. Although many different reasons were given by foster parents for terminating a placement, only about a quarter of terminations were inevitable, and rejection of the child was the predominating cause.

4. *Residential care (excluding short-stay).* Out of 533 children, 165 were accommodated in L.A. homes, 73 in voluntary homes, 3 in psychiatric centres, 9 in supervised lodgings, and 8 in residential employment.

5. *The Local Authority as 'fit person'.* Multiple causes were found for committal to the L.A. under these conditions. Immorality and instability were more prominent than poor housing. The child-parent relationship was defective in nearly all cases. The progress of children after placement was considered to be favourable for about one-third,

uncertain for about one-third, and definitely unfavourable for about one-third. About 8% went on to Borstals and Approved Schools, and about 6% to mental hospitals.

6. *Protected children and supervised private fostering.* The number of supervised private fostering arrangements had dropped and there were 15 such placements in Aberdeen in 1959. There were 63 protected children for whom adoption petitions had been filed.

7. *Termination of care and outcome.* A very large majority of children leaving care returned to parent, guardian, etc. Out of 274 children, 15 were adopted, 26 simply reached the age of 18. A sample of 158 young people between 18 and 21 who had left care were selected for further study: occupations were very various. 2 were University students, 8 unemployed or in Borstals. It was estimated that 100 were well adjusted 43 were unsettled, and 15 were (so far) failures. Nearly all the well-adjusted group still lived with or frequently visited their foster-parents. Of the failed group, 11 had come into care in their teens showing delinquent behaviour and nearly all returned to their parents after leaving care. (No indication of how adjustment was assessed or follow-up carried out.)

DISCUSSION

Findings are discussed throughout. In general, the author concludes that although the Children Act was well conceived, neither substitute care nor remaining in poor homes is satisfactory, and far more emphasis should be laid on prevention of family failure.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Prevention should be undertaken by the following means: early referral by G.P.s and Health Visitors of families in difficulties; provision of family caseworkers and free domestic helpers; more training centres for neglectful parents.

2. Local Authorities should be empowered to spend the necessary money to prevent families breaking up, since this would be cheaper than providing substitute care for the children.

3. There should be more co-ordination between voluntary and L.A. Homes. If more children from voluntary Homes were fostered, some of the voluntary Homes could be used to provide specialised care for mal-adjusted children, or children with other special needs.

4. Legislative changes should be made to define more clearly the L.A.'s rights, provide Reception Centres, provide for adolescents between 17 and 18, supervise private unpaid foster placements, raise the age of criminal responsibility, and to enforce training for neglectful parents or in some cases take away parental rights.

COHAGAN, GRACE B. (1960) *Adoptability. A study of* 100 *children in foster care.* New York. 29 pp.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A pilot survey of case records of children in care to find out whether they were, or ever had been, available for adoption. Carried out in consultation with the Social Research Service and the State Charities Aid Association.

SAMPLE

100 case records picked at random from the 437 children's records handled by an American child welfare agency. 70 children were coloured, 30 were white. All but 9 had siblings, living in various places. They had been separated from their parents for an average of 8 years. Average age was 11 years. Some were in institutions and some in foster homes (proportions not given). Very few had parents who visited regularly or contributed to their support.

METHOD

A schedule covering several aspects of the child's history was filled out from case records. Additional material was gathered from the Department of Public Welfare when necessary.

The potential adoptability of each child at three periods in his life was examined: when he came into care, two years later, and at the time of the study. Adoptability was defined with various factors taken into consideration: parental adequacy, strength of family ties, and child's age and emotional health. Colour, race, and physical handicap were considered separately, as was the child's legal status.

FINDINGS

1. 77 children had families that were unlikely ever to make a home for them.

2. The children's range of intelligence was normal, but 48 were judged to be emotionally unstable.

3. 7 children had close family ties and adoption was irrelevant for them. Of the other 93, 35 were considered adoptable when coming into care, 33 two years' later, and 12 at the time of the study.

4. 92% of those judged 'unadoptable' at the time of initial placement were still unadoptable at the time of the study, even when the reasons for it had changed.

5. Of the 12 children still judged adoptable at the time of the study, the average age was 5½ years; nearly all lived in foster homes and had been there for most of their lives. 10 were Negro. 9 were illegitimate. Only 2 were legally free for adoption, without court action.

6. Of the 70 children judged unadoptable at the time of the study, the percentage of the maladjusted was judged to have increased by 28% since placement. Most of them had seriously disorganised families, and this had been known from the time of placement. Parents had made few visits or agency contacts.

7. Legal availability at the time of placement: out of 35 children considered adoptable at placement, only 6 were legally free or likely to be freed through casework discussion. 60% would have needed court action on the grounds of neglect, mental illness or desertion, and there was no certainty that it would have succeeded.

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATION

In view of the fact that nearly half the sample had originally been adoptable, that the majority had seriously disorganised families, and that adoptability decreased for the children the longer they stayed in care, the question is raised as to how long after placement an agency should wait before considering legal action to make adoption possible. Rehabilitation and family ties should be considered realistically. It is suggested that—since most children in the sample came to the agency from some other placement, not from home—the first interim placement should be the time when adoption is given serious consideration, and where appropriate, intensive casework should then be used to reach an early decision on the child's future.

DAVID, MYRIAM (1961) 'Séparations Précoces' (Early separations), *Informations Sociales*, **6/7**, 34–57.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

An epidemiological study of early mother-child separation in one urban and one country district of France. The investigation is in two parts: a quantitative and a qualitative study; it lasted for a year and was carried out by a research team of a psychiatrist, psychologist and two social workers.

SAMPLE

(a) *Quantitative study*. All children under 6 years in the two selected areas who were experiencing separation from the family for at least 3 months.

(b) *Qualitative study*. A number of the parents in the two areas who had been separated from their children; all foster mothers in the areas; and staff of institutions where children had been placed. Families from outside the areas placing children in them, and foster mothers outside the area, were excluded.

The urban area had a population of about 3,000, of which 850 were children, and the rural area a population of about 7,928, of which about 2,103 were children.

METHOD

(*a*) *Quantitative study*. The following factors were studied; number of separations, geographical location, type of placement, accompanying circumstances, age of children, and length of separation.

A census of cases of separation among the child population was made in the two areas. In the rural area this was compiled with the help of mayors and teachers; in the urban section questionnaires were circulated to parents by teachers and social workers. In this area, 301 of the 851 questionnaires were ignored or only partially completed. Names of children from other areas but receiving substitute care within the study areas were also collected. The original aim of the quantitative study—to include all relevant *past* separations—was found to be impracticable and it was restricted to current separations.

(*b*) *Qualitative study*. This part of the research included past separations. Foster mothers and 50 couples were interviewed twice, with a gap of a few weeks between interviews. Directors and staff of each institution were interviewed over a day or two. Circumstances of separation, and conditions of institutional life were probed. Findings are described and case histories given.

FINDINGS

1. *Incidence of separation*. In the rural area 4·3% of children were separated; in the urban area 9·8%. (The circumstances of the research indicate that the figures are not definitive.) A large number of separated children in the urban area came from outside the area.

2. *Duration and age*. In a sample of 30 children from the rural area for whom data were adequate, 15 had been separated since birth; 13 of these were permanent separations.

3. *Type of placement*. In the country area 51·6% of placements were with relatives, 41·7% in foster families, and 6·65% in health institutions outside the area. In the town, 50% of placements were in Homes or medical institutions, 28·6% in foster families, and 21·4% with relatives. Placement with relatives was often used where the mother worked or was ill or had died; seldom in serious cases of family disintegration.

Unmarried mothers usually placed their babies either with foster mothers or relatives; the latter often led to more problems than the former.

4. *Institutions*. Those visited (some of them *établissements de cure* or health establishments) were not equipped to understand or handle small children's needs. Staffing was inadequate and turnover rapid; children were in large groups and their daily activities monotonous.

5. *Causes of separation*. These were usually multiple. The health of the child was a more important factor in the country, and low economic status in the town. Separations unconnected with family and social problems seemed the least serious, but many parents nevertheless seemed unaware that placement could cause unhappiness. More serious in their effects were the group of placements resulting from family and social problems, and most serious those where the mother had grave personality defects; in these cases children had usually had a series of placements. Early diagnosis of the situation and, if possible, adoption is recommended for this last group.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The reasons for the separations investigated were complex and varied; separation itself is usually one of a number of associated traumatising factors.

1. A great deal can be done to mitigate the damage to children by keeping all those involved in touch with each other.

2. A register of all placements in each district could be kept, as was done during the research, and a plan for prevention and alleviation drawn up.

3. Each situation—e.g. unmarried mother, mentally ill mother—has its own typical problems, which should be studied and understood.

4. The enquiry throws light on the varying seriousness of different separations; the mother's own potentiality is the most important criterion, and where this is poor, adoptive placements should be made if possible. For those mothers with some ability to deal with their difficulties, early and massive support should be given to prevent deterioration.

CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY, HOMEMAKER SERVICE, NEW YORK (1962) 'Nine to twenty-four hour Homemaker Service project', *Child Welfare*, 41, pp. 99–103 and 153–8.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A demonstration project resulting from a preliminary study (see p. 61) undertaken in 1958 by the Children's Aid Society in co-operation with the New York City Department of Welfare, which indicated that a more flexible use of the Homemaker Service could avoid the removal of some children from their homes into temporary care. Grants were provided by State and voluntary welfare agencies to finance the provision of extended hours of Homemaker Service.

SAMPLE

184 children of 40 families who received extended hours of Homemaker Service. Children were referred by welfare centres, hospitals, courts, police, parents and neighbours. Families were of varying religions, races, economic and marital status. 59 children were under 2 years; 16 over 13 years.

METHOD

Three experienced homemakers were designated to meet emergencies and to be in contact with police and the Bureau of Child Welfare. Grants also provided for two-fifths extra casework time and one-fifth extra clerical time. The results of the experiment are analysed.

FINDINGS

1. In eight families, the homemaker was placed on the day of request; in 13, within two days. The other 19 families were able to plan help in advance. The length of service varied from 1 to 89 days.

2. *Twenty-four-hour service, five to seven days a week* was needed for 135 children of 31 families (21 one-parent families). In many cases the mothers were in hospital and fathers, if present, worked irregular hours. The majority of children adjusted quickly to the homemaker, though in a third of the families they were disturbed, mostly as a result of long-standing pathology. Change of homemakers upset children. In about two-thirds of these families, parents were co-operative and re-assured by help; in one-third parents were suspicious and distrustful. Homemakers often had to assume full parental responsibilities, including financial ones.

3. *Nine- to sixteen-hour service* was required for 24 children of 6 families, due to illness or confinement of the mother. All these families were co-operative, and standards of housekeeping and child-parent relationships were improved after the service ended.

4. *Eight-hour service*: 23 families received this service prior to and after a period of more extended service.

5. *Housing*: 57 children in 12 families were in inadequate homes, over-crowded, rat- and insect-infested, unsafe or neglected. Case-workers managed to re-house one family and improve conditions for 3 others. The standard of housekeeping in 6 families was very poor and could only be temporarily or partially improved.

6. *Severe emotional disturbance* was present in one or both parents in about one-quarter of the families. These had the greatest difficulty in making constructive use of the service.

7. *Families not served*: 452 children of 111 families had to be refused help, as no homemaker was available. Some went into care and some remained at home. The fate of the majority is unknown.

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

184 children were prevented from going into temporary care; mothers were relieved of worry and fathers enabled to keep their jobs.

Three additional homemakers were eventually required to cover weekend relief, vacations, illness, etc. A full-time caseworker was found necessary for frequent consultations with homemakers and extensive help to children. The extra clerical help was sufficient. The cost of the project was $35,972. Had the sample been taken into temporary care, the estimated cost would have been $160,249.

Significant factors in the success of the project were: (*a*) use of experienced staff; (*b*) ability to respond immediately to requests; (*c*) flexibility of hours and length of service; (*d*) assumption of full parental responsibility when necessary; (*e*) willingness to live in even the most dilapidated homes; (*f*) availability of caseworker-homemaker team at any hour.

Results of the project suggest an expansion of the 9- to 24-hour homemaker service to lessen human distress; as an administrative economy; and to alleviate over-crowding in Children's Homes.

GALE, J. A. B. (1963) 'Non-European children in care', *Child Care*, **17,** no. 4, 133–5.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A survey of the characteristics and attitudes of coloured children in the care of one voluntary society in Great Britain.

SAMPLE

All Superintendents and Child Care Officers of one voluntary society which covers the whole country and provides the usual range of child care services.

METHOD

Respondents were asked to fill in a questionnaire on the coloured children in their care (defined as children with at least one non-European parent).

FINDINGS

1. The proportion of children in the Society's care who are coloured had risen from 5½% to 16% in the past 10 years. Boarding-out had increased from 0% to 34% for coloured children, residential care from 22% to 41%, but the number at Approved Schools had remained at 1 to 2%.

2. Non-European children in care were of the following races: 32% West Indian, 21% African, 20% Indian or Pakistani, 8% Chinese, 7% American Negro, and 12% others.

3. 37% were wholly of coloured parentage, 60% half-caste of coloured fathers, and 3% of coloured mothers.

4. 86% were born in Britain.

5. 76% were believed to accept their colour, 22% to resent it, and 2% to be proud of it. Those who kept in contact with their coloured fathers were more likely to be proud of it. Younger children and adolescents were said to be least accepting of their colour.

6. 75% were illegitimate.

7. Evidence as to whether they found it hard to get lodgings on leaving care was contradictory.

8. The majority wanted to find friends and marriage partners among white people.

BOSS, PETER (1965) 'Committals to the care of a fit person', M.A. thesis, University of Liverpool. 175 pp.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A study of the development and use of the provisions by which children are committed to the care of Local Authorities under fit person orders.

SAMPLE

156 children; all those committed to the care of one Local Authority during a 4-year period between 1954 and 1957. The proportion of children under fit person orders has always been higher in this county than in the country as a whole.

METHOD

Case histories of the children were studied, and discussions conducted with department personnel. The dates 1954–1957 were chosen in order that later progress could be assessed.

18 tables are included, and extracts from case histories given.

FINDINGS

1. *Children's backgrounds.* Of the 90 families from which the children came, 7 were judged deficient in reasonable living conditions, 32 in adequate income, 51 in availability of both parents, 20 in good physical and mental health of parents, 35 in good moral character of parents.

2. *Children before the Juvenile Courts*

(*a*) *Offenders.* 35 of the 156 children were offenders. Boys predominated over girls in the ratio of 4 to 1. Boys' median age was 11·5, girls' 14·2. Stealing was the commonest offence; 22 children had committed previous offences and probation had been used for 20 of these. Some offences were trivial, and committal was made partly on account of home circumstances. Though the appropriateness of a few decisions appeared doubtful, the majority were sensible.

(*b*) *Non-offenders.* The N.S.P.C.C. and the police took responsibility for prosecuting adults. Schedule 1 offences accounted for 51 children; neglect for 35; 'moral danger' or 'beyond control' for 12. Sentences on parents emphasised punishment rather than rehabilitation. Eight children were committed because of truanting; in all 8 cases family relationships were good, and committal appeared to have been too drastic a step. In general, little rehabilitative work was undertaken; the children were removed swiftly without co-ordinated planning; and once in care the children remained there for a long period.

3. *The children in care.* 119 of the 156 first went to a Reception Centre; afterwards, average number of placements was 2·31. More than half the children could expect at least 5 years in care; it appeared that more positive efforts to reduce the time could have been made by the department. Few parents knew of the legal machinery for taking back their children. The 'home on trial' procedure was used with 31 children, and was successful for 24. 80 children were contacted regularly by their parents, 40 irregularly, 21 were not contacted, and for 15 there was insufficient information. Applications for revocation of the fit person order were made in respect of 25 children; 12 succeeded at the first attempt, 9 at later attempts and 4 were refused.

4. *Children's adjustment.* 16 children came before the courts again. Case reports suggested that the rest of the children made a satisfactory adjustment.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Magistrates should have the help of a specially appointed psychologist or social worker to give them maximum information before coming to their decision. Much more could be done to support families before committal becomes necessary. Court proceedings should only be undertaken after consultation between agencies, rather than after unilateral action. Greater use could also be made of supervision orders as an alternative to fit person orders, and for difficult children therapeutic treatment centres should be established.

PACKMAN, JEAN (1965) 'Variations in the number of children in care throughout England and Wales', Ph.D. thesis, Oxford University.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A detailed examination of the reasons for the widely varying numbers of children in different forms of care throughout England and Wales. Duration of the study: three years. Sponsored by the Nuffield Foundation. See also 'Children in care', by Jean Packman, p. 232.

SAMPLE

Fifty Local Authorities throughout England and Wales. London and the Scilly Islands were excluded as being atypical; all other Local Authorities were assigned to six areas and subdivided into counties and boroughs. They were then listed in order of their total number of children in care, and every third Authority selected for study. Oxford City and Oxfordshire were added as they had already been the subject of the author's earlier study. Only two Local Authorities refused to participate in the study. Statistics from voluntary societies, adoption societies, etc. were also used in reaching conclusions.

METHOD

(*a*) Annual statistics on all the relevant variables from the different areas were scrutinised and compared.

(*b*) Children's Officers in the selected areas were interviewed.

(*c*) Questionnaires covering backgrounds of children in care, inter-referrals, applications for care accepted and refused, were filled in by 42 of the Local Authorities studied.

(*d*) Two correlation matrices were constructed to examine the variables extracted from the above material.

FINDINGS

A. General

1. There are wide, even bizarre, variations in the number of children in care in different areas (from 1·8 per 1,000 to 12·4 per 1,000 in 1963), but no simple pattern of reasons was found for the discrepancy. 'Hard' factors like size of population interact with 'soft' factors like personal policy. The correlation matrices were non-significant throughout (reasons are discussed). When figures for all types of child care provision are pooled, the pattern is rather more significant than when they are considered separately; figures are higher in the South and East, in coastal resorts and cathedral cities.

2. Factors associated with need for child care services: children came nearly always from the manual working class. One-fifth of fathers were unemployed; housing was poor. Newcomers to the district were specially at risk, and so were younger children compared to older siblings. Broken families, illegitimacy, desertion, homelessness, mental illness, neglect, cruelty, and delinquency were the main factors. Short-term care was a simpler problem, and usually provided during temporary illness of a parent. Lower figures in the North were probably associated with closer family ties.

3. Although need for child care was associated with poverty and bad housing, the highest figures were in prosperous areas, probably because these areas attract unmarried mothers, immigrants, and unsettled families, possibly also because more money and services were available.

B. Special services

1. Home Helps: Children's Officers who were interviewed agreed that more were needed, working more flexible hours. It was doubted whether, on its present scale, the service made much difference to the child care problem. Expenditure was small and recruitment difficult.

2. Day nurseries and nursery schools: it was agreed that this was a patchy and declining service. Where it existed it was especially helpful to widowed, divorced, and unmarried mothers. Some Authorities found that closing day nurseries did not lead to more children being taken into care, but the nurseries may have been serving ordinary working mothers. The estimated percentage of children prevented by nursery provision from coming into care varied from 0 to 5·9.

3. Provisions for homeless families: some areas had little or no accommodation. Co-operation between housing and welfare authorities varied. In some areas a good service reduced the number of children in care.

4. Other preventive services: it was impossible to discover whether Probation Officers, Health Visitors, etc. were able to lower the numbers of children in care, since so many other factors operated in each area.

Children's Officers disagreed as to whether Coordinating Committees were effective.

5. Voluntary services: Family Service Units were admired, but they were too small to affect the child care figures substantially. Respondents' comments on the work of the N.S.P.C.C. varied. There was general agreement that the W.V.S. was helpful.

6. Voluntary Children's Homes: staff interviewed felt that they took more long-stay children than Local Authorities, more unfosterable children, large families, and illegitimate children. Large differences existed between numbers of children from different areas, suggesting traditions of referral in certain communities. There were more voluntary homes in the South. As with other factors, their influence on total child care figures was statistically unmeasurable.

7. Adoption societies: their activities varied strikingly between one area and another. Probable reasons: siting of their headquarters, Local Authority responsibility for adoption placement, local family patterns.

8. Protected children: there were far more in the South. Probable reasons: they come from less poor backgrounds, some were students; unmarried mothers move to towns in the South; retired nurses live there and care for children of parents abroad.

9. Schools for maladjusted: there were more in the South and East.

10. Children committed by Juvenile Courts: variations between areas were even greater than for other services, sentencing often being based on home background as well as type of offence. Children's Officers disagreed as to whether they believed that Approved School figures affected their own.

C. Local Authorities

1. Staffing: ratios varied from one Child Care Officer to every 28,000 people to one to every 3,500 people; however, in small rural areas fieldwork is often shared by the Children's Officer; also the kind of work undertaken affects the amount of overwork, as well as actual numbers in care. Some Children's Officers believed that full staffing increased numbers in care, others the opposite, but there was no statistical evidence for either view. Good staff tend to gravitate to pleasant southern areas, and to attract other trained staff to the same areas.

2. Amount of accommodation available: this had no constant relationship with numbers needing care or admitted to care, contrary to some respondents' beliefs.

3. Policy: Children's Officers' individual policies did affect the numbers in care. In areas where population and needs were similar, effects of varying policies could be seen, but in other areas need over-rode policy.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Three factors affect the number of children in care, varying in importance according to area: (i) need, more marked in towns than country, and associated with illegitimacy, unemployment, poverty, immigration, and poor housing; (ii) the existence of preventive and alternative services for deprived children; (iii) the policy of the Children's Officer, although this was often obliterated by an almost traditional attitude to substitute care in a local community. None of these factors can finally be demonstrated statistically, partly because they cancel each other out, and partly because available statistics are inadequate and not strictly comparable.

The following implications are drawn from the study:

(*a*) Lack of co-ordination between welfare services, often noted, is re-emphasised by the findings;

(*b*) Methods of recording data should be rationalised and co-ordinated, since voluntary societies, Approved Schools, local and central Departments, etc. all record slightly different statistics; the effect of different factors could then be more clearly assessed;

(*c*) Preventive services should be examined more closely, to see what is really effective and what is only a transfer from one kind of care to another. The question of whether a higher rate of admission to care means lower juvenile delinquency figures should be examined.

DR BARNARDO'S (1966) 'Racial integration and Barnardo's'. 51 pp. Printed and distributed by Dr Barnardo's.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

Report of a working party on non-European children in Dr Barnardo's Homes, to examine problems and make recommendations.

METHOD

Visits were made and letters and questionnaires sent to individuals, to members of Dr Barnardo's staff and to other organisations with first-hand knowledge of the problems under consideration.

FINDINGS

1. *Children.* In 1965, 1,057 coloured children were in the care of Dr Barnardo's. A high proportion of these were very young. There were nearly twice as many boys as girls. There was no fixed quota of coloured children for any Branch Home, proportions varying from none to 80%, with an average of 44%.

2. *Parentage.* Most common was non-European father and indigenous mother. Fathers: 495 were West Indian; 177 Indian and Pakistani; 163 African; 60 coloured American; 41 British; 121 others. Mothers: 724 were British; 231 West Indian; 102 others.

3. *Reasons for admission* (Sample of 41 children of 39 mothers). The majority of applications were from West Indian women on the grounds that: (*a*) father had deserted; (*b*) mother was working full-time and no day-care was available; (*c*) housing conditions were bad. Children of European mothers were mostly illegitimate and rejected by parents and relatives. Some fathers were unknown, though many showed interest in their children. Legitimate children of married students from overseas were mostly refused admission. It is recommended that every effort should be made to persuade mothers to keep their children, and wherever possible fathers should be contacted.

4. *Contact with relatives.* Of 440 children in 50 homes, 30·9% had no contact at all. 82% of fully coloured children had some contact, compared with 64% of half-caste children.

5. *Fostering.* It is more difficult to find foster parents for coloured than for white children; nevertheless, lower standards should not be accepted, but couples should be recruited by good publicity and adequate payment. Due to the number of white children who are older or whose parents may take them back, a higher proportion of coloured than white children are in fact fostered (29·22% compared to 21·87% of white children in Barnardo's care).

6. *Special foster homes.* Barnardo's have bought several properties and installed couples as foster parents to a group of children. Problems can arise in the running of these homes and no more are to be set up at present. Tenant foster homes (rent to be paid to Barnardo's) are also suggested. Couples would have to be specially selected and tried out for this type of home.

7. *Fostering breakdowns.* More coloured than white children under 10 years were involved in fostering breakdowns, but fewer over 10.

8. *Fostering research.* Research is recommended on: scientific selection of foster parents; causes of breakdowns; types of foster parent required for short and long-term placements; casework with natural parents; suitability for fostering, etc.

9. *Family Assistance Scheme.* The use of Barnardo's Family Assistance Scheme is discussed in relation to the children of coloured unmarried mothers. Day nurseries would be particularly valuable for these children, who run a serious risk of maternal deprivation.

10. *Adoption.* Few coloured children were directly admitted for adoption, most adoptions resulting from fostering. There were not enough applications to adopt, and very few from coloured couples. Extension of adoption work by Barnardo's is recommended.

11. *Relationships of children with coloured adults.* Coloured staff members, visitors, and 'aunts and uncles' would all be valuable for the coloured child in care.

12. *Colour prejudice.* Racial problems should be discussed freely, and children prepared for the hostility they will meet.

13. *Restoration and repatriation.* A much smaller proportion (7·25%) of coloured than white children (23·7%) were restored to their families. Repatriation has sometimes been carried out after suitable enquiries.

14. *After-care, lodgings and employment.* Of 81 half-caste boys leaving care between 1956 and 1960, 35 were considered to be making satisfactory progress; 19 were in social difficulties, 2 had committed suicide; 25 had had convictions. Difficulties were greater in finding lodgings than employment. Information on the marriage of 8 of these boys showed that in 3 cases the girl was pregnant before marriage. Of 17 half-caste girls who married (14 to white men), 6 were in difficulties.

15. *Views of* 25 *coloured young people between* 14 *and* 26 *years.* The majority became aware of their colour problems at an early age (between 5 and 6 years). Two-thirds had experienced racial prejudice at school or work. 23 felt that Britain was 'their country', only 2 feeling hostile to white people. Many expressed bitterness about their parents. The majority did not feel that religion had helped them in the Home. When asked what had been most helpful for them whilst in care, 8 said the opportunity to learn a trade, 7 their foster home or lodgings, 4 the staff of the Home. They felt that more discussion about their colour and more preparation for leaving the Home would have been useful.

16. *Future trends.* There is no likelihood of a reduction in the number of applications for care. Of the 1,057 coloured children in care, only 98 are over 14 years; fewer will leave in the next few years than will be coming in.

RECOMMENDATIONS

70 recommendations are made, including the following:

1. Coloured children should be integrated into British society and culture, but special attention should be paid to their needs.

2. Parents should be encouraged to keep their children or at least to maintain contact with them; guidance on visiting should be provided for parents.

3. If family contact is lost, dispersal of coloured children into different Homes is advisable, so that each Branch Home is multi-racial.

4. Foster homes should reach the required standard and similar rates of payment be made for coloured and white children. Policy on fostering fees should be reviewed.

5. An effort should be made to find more foster homes, but children should not be placed without parental consent.

6. Barnardo's should experiment with rehousing selected couples as their tenants, in order to foster coloured children.

7. Immigrants should be helped to take advantage of Welfare Clinic facilities.

8. A supernumerary Adoption Officer should be appointed to promote the adoption of coloured children.

9. There should be more opportunity for coloured children to meet adults of similar race. Coloured adults on the staff and Panels of Visitors should be appointed.

10. Children should be helped to face colour prejudice by free discussion, and if possible to form a personal relationship with a loyal adult of any colour.

11. Staff should be made familiar with the culture and way of life of different races by means of training courses.

12. The work of Dr Barnardo's should be made clearer to the immigrant community and greater selectivity sometimes be exercized in offering admission.

13. Work should not be extended to other Commonwealth countries unless requested by their Governments.

14. Welfare Officers should find lodgings for leavers before finding employment, and if necessary pay a retaining fee.

15. Research should be undertaken into the results of work with coloured children.

16. A small committee should be set up to promote the welfare of coloured children.

FERGUSON, THOMAS (1966) *Children in care—and after.* Oxford University Press. 139 pp.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

To study the performance of young people in the care of the Glasgow Children's Department, and to follow up their progress during the first three years after leaving care. Comparisons are made with data collected in previous studies of young people in Glasgow who lived at home.

SAMPLE

Two hundred and five young people who were in the care of the Glasgow Children's Department or had just left it. All were born in wartime;

about half were illegitimate. Of the legitimate children, 43 came into care before their first birthday; 46 between the ages of 1 and 4 years, and the rest after the age of 4. Reasons for coming into care were similar for both legitimate and illegitimate children: illness or death of parents, homelessness, neglect, etc. The legitimate children tended to come into care later and to be children of older mothers. 139 of the total sample of 205 were in foster homes.

METHOD

(*a*) A survey of child care in Scotland from the late eighteenth century onwards is made.

(*b*) Statistics, and information from case histories of the children studied, are given.

(*c*) Head teachers were consulted for their comments on children's characters and school performance.

(*d*) Employment records while still in care and after were analysed.

(*e*) Visits were made—at six-monthly intervals if possible—to young people who had left care, and information on their first two years out of care is recorded.

(*f*) Case histories are given and 34 tables included.

(*g*) No statistical tests of significance are made.

FINDINGS

1. Eighty-three of the 102 illegitimate children were boarded out directly or after a short spell in a residential nursery, but only 56 of the 103 legitimate children. The younger the children, the more likely they were to be boarded out; among the older children, a high proportion of the legitimate children lived with relatives (39%). Although illegitimate children were boarded out more often and earlier, they had more changes of foster home and these were more often due to behaviour difficulties.

2. Family structure of all children before they came into care: of the 205 children, one or both parents were dead in 75 cases; one or both parents had deserted in 120 cases (these two categories sometimes overlapped). Only 3 children came from families where the parents were living together.

3. Compared with statistics for 1961, the sample studied came into care younger. Most of those admitted after infancy had been suffering severe deprivation in their own homes. There was no significant relationship between age at admission and unbroken fostering record.

4. Migration whilst in care: 42 of the whole sample of 205 remained in Glasgow—the rest were boarded out in other parts of Scotland. In

comparison, in 1961 about twice as many stayed in Glasgow, as recommendations had been made against boarding out in remote counties where opportunities of all kinds were limited.

5. Performance whilst in care and attending school:

(*a*) Schools attended: 23 children stayed on until the age of 16, five until 17, three until 18.

(*b*) Health: six children had major illnesses; 46 were known to have lost more than three months' schooling.

(*c*) School performance: less than one-quarter were assessed as 'good' by their teachers; the general standard was low. A large majority had I.Q.s below 100, and boys returned an appreciably higher proportion of very low I.Q.s than girls. Children admitted to care before the age of five had much lower I.Q.s than those admitted after five, and the lowest mean I.Q. was among those admitted as infants. Children living with relatives performed best in intelligence tests; next best performances came from foster children and lowest from children living in Homes.

(*d*) Temperament: teachers assessed 166 children as 'good', 51 as 'fair' and 18 as frankly bad. For the remaining 20, no assessments were given. Girls received better assessments than boys. Relations with other children were said to be reasonably good. Teachers' assessments of future prospects were very guarded; 10% were believed to have definitely poor prospects.

(*e*) Delinquency: whilst in care, one girl and seven boys were convicted (6·3% of the sample, compared to 4·8% of boys *not* in care previously studied by the author.)

6. Performance whilst still in care and after leaving school:

(*a*) Employment: 59% of the children were employed for at least 90% of the available time—a less satisfactory figure than among the boys studied previously by the author. In general, the proportion of time worked increased with the level of intelligence and with good assessments by teachers. Those boarded with relatives had the best employment record; those fostered the next best, and those in Homes the least good.

(*b*) Migration: 50 boys and 67 girls stayed in the area where they had received their schooling. There was more migration among young people with lower I.Q.s.

(*c*) Relationship with foster parents: in only six cases was all contact lost.

(*d*) Convictions: during this period, 29 young people had convictions; a rate of 25·4% compared to 11·6% found in the author's previous study of boys not in care. Four girls had illegitimate pregnancies.

(*e*) Family structure of present sample compared with that of previous study: Only 5% of families were assessed as 'good', compared with 73% in the author's previous study. Only three children had parents living together, whereas four-fifths did in the previous study.

7. Performance after leaving care:

(*a*) Migration: 58% of boys had moved away by the age of 18½. Girls tended to stay in the same area and so did those living with relatives and foster parents.

(*b*) Employment: at 18½, two girls and one boy were receiving some form of training; 28% of boys were in the Forces. 6% of the boys were not self-supporting at this time.

(*c*) Contact with foster parents: at this time 32% of boys and 53% of girls still lived with their foster parents.

(*d*) Convictions: during this period six more boys were convicted.

8. Two years after leaving care, 4% of boys and 24% of girls were married; many more boys than girls had moved away; in particular, boys with low I.Q.s and poor prospects. Of the total sample, 30% were still living with foster parents, 3% with own parents, 11% with relatives and 11% in residential jobs. 25% of the total had no contact with foster parents by this time. 7% were unemployed; 7% of girls aged 18 to 20 had had illegitimate children.

9. Crime: altogether, 34 boys and 7 girls were convicted before their 20th birthday. They had 89 convictions between them, nearly half of them for theft. Boarded-out children had the least number of convictions. More than twice as many of those with poor school records were convicted as with good school records, and convictions also increased with the number of jobs held. 47% of those convicted were unskilled workers; 36% were in the Forces and 20% were in apprenticeship.

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

Scholastic performance, intelligence, employment record and conviction record were all poorer than was found in the author's previous study of working-class Glasgow boys not in care. Children from Homes had the poorest records, but this probably reflects selection policies for foster placement. All these children were born in wartime, brought up at a time when social services were strained; and although a few did well, their overall performance fell seriously short of that of the ordinary run of young people. However, in many cases relationships with foster parents were good and contact was maintained. These results may be as good as can be obtained in the circumstances; real improvement must arise out of mitigating the conditions which were responsible for giving so many children such a bad start in life.

JENKINS, SHIRLEY and SAUBER, MIGNON (1966) *Paths to child placement.* Community Council of Greater New York and New York City Department of Welfare. 220 pp.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A study of families' experiences during the year before their children were placed in care for the first time in New York City.

SAMPLE

A sample of 425 families with 891 children was gathered by studying the city's Bureau of Child Welfare records of all children coming into care at public expense between May 1st and August 31st, 1963. The following children were excluded from the sample; those entering institutions for the maladjusted, delinquent, etc., babies under 6 months, and children with previous placements, or siblings in previous placements. Names were taken in order from the records until there were an adequate number in the sample. 17 families had refused to take part, and 59 could not be traced.

Some data are also given on the *total* intake during the period under review, as well as the fuller data on the sample.

METHOD

Families were interviewed as soon as possible after their child's placement. A semi-structured questionnaire was used, and bilingual interviews were conducted with respondents who only spoke Spanish, Yiddish, or Italian. Data were analysed, coded, and tabulated. Extracts from interviews are quoted. Material obtained at interviews was validated from case records when necessary.

FINDINGS

A. On the total intake into care

1. Over two-fifths were Negro, nearly a quarter Puerto Rican, and one-third were white. About 52% were Catholic, 43% Protestant, and 4% Jewish.

2. 58% were under 6 years, 12% over 12, and the rest between 6 and 12.

3. Only 18% came from 'intact' families. In nearly 30% of placements the police had been involved.

B. On the study sample

1. During the year before placement all families had had grave problems. Only 32% had been intact families, housing had been poor (although there were only 5 actual evictions), public assistance had been

the largest single source of support, over half had had health problems which increased during the year, and about 30% had had school problems.

2. *Physical illness of child's caretaker* was the most frequent single cause of placement, accounting for 29%. These families were among the poorest, and included many Negroes and Puerto Ricans. Multiple health problems were common, and living conditions made it difficult for them to carry out medical advice without emergency hospitalisation. Many placements might have been avoided by homemaker (home help) service, or payment to friends or relatives; but a number of parents preferred placement for the children. The majority of children were under school age, and were discharged within 3 months.

3. *Mental illness of caretaker* was the most frequent single cause of placement in 11% of families. The majority appeared to have broken down because of intolerable living conditions. Families were large, and school attendance poor. Most mothers had been disturbed for some time before the crisis but few had received any help. There was a high proportion of Puerto Ricans. Interviewers estimated that 35% of placements might have been avoided.

4. *Emotional problems of the child* was the cause of placement in 17% of families. This group included a relatively high proportion of white families, self-supporting, intact, and physically healthy. (This is associated by the authors with the cost of residential psychiatric treatment.) Most children in this group had long-standing problems, and came into long-term care. Family conflict was often mentioned.

5. *Severe neglect or abuse* was the cause of placement in 10% of families, although only 6% of respondents acknowledged it. Half were one-parent families. There were relatively few Negroes and Puerto Ricans. Most of these placements were desirable and probably could not have been avoided, but some families were in touch with community services that could have detected serious trouble earlier.

6. *Various family problems* caused placement in 30% of families studied. Desertion, incompetence, arrest, eviction, alcoholism, drug addiction and death of a parent were included under this heading. Typically these were multi-problem families with very low income. Interviewers estimated that nearly half the placements might have been avoided.

CONCLUSIONS

The families studied had had problems throughout the year before children were placed: poverty, ill-health, poor housing, and lack of paternal support. Nearly all had been in touch with welfare agencies, and better provisions could have avoided many placements, in particular those caused by adults' illness.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. A better record-keeping system for children in care, to facilitate study, diagnosis and planning.

2. Co-ordination between welfare agencies involved with 'problem families'.

3. Expanded home-aid services, based in neighbourhoods where there is most need, and available on a 24-hour basis if necessary. Publicity and recruitment need new planning.

4. 24-hour child welfare intake, to prevent emergency placements having to be made by the police.

5. Payment to relatives and friends caring for children to be more liberally available, not making the recipients ineligible to go on receiving public assistance.

6. Day nurseries provided locally for single mothers who are otherwise forced to place their children in care.

7. Court order for support from fathers to be enforced, responsibility for collecting and paying to the mother being taken if necessary by the welfare department.

8. Both earlier detection and after-care for child victims of abuse and neglect.

9. Expanded community psychiatric services for mentally ill mothers, able to plan for the needs of the whole family.

10. Schools to co-operate in providing special classes and therapy for children who need them and whose parents are unable to arrange them.

11. Integration of public assistance and child welfare services, since they are usually serving the same group of families.

12. Improved care facilities: adequate short-term homes to act as 'poor man's baby-sitter' for families who have no alternative; and for children in long-term care, better planning, psychiatric therapy, and vocational training.

CONCLUSION

While facilities should be improved, it is argued that the large numbers of children entering care can only be reduced by a serious attempt to alleviate the 'poverty syndrome'—low incomes, exclusion from the main stream of society, lack of opportunity, and family breakdown.

2. Residential care for infants

Abstracts are listed in chronological order

SPITZ, R. (1949) 'The role of ecological factors in emotional development'

ROUDINESCO, J. and APPELL, G. (1950) 'Les répercussions de la stabilisation hospitalière sur le développement psycho-moteur des jeunes enfants' (The effect of hospitalisation on the psychological and motor development of young children)

ROUDINESCO, J. and APPELL, G. (1951) 'De certaines répercussions de la vie en collectivité sur les enfants de 1 à 4 ans' (On certain repercussions of maternal deprivation and collective upbringing on children aged one to four years)

ROUDINESCO, J. and GEBER, M. (1951) 'De l'utilisation du test de Gesell pour l'étude du comportement des jeunes enfants' (The use of the Gesell test in studying the behaviour of young children)

HEGE, M. (1963) 'Psychologische Analyse eines Säuglings- und Kleinkinderheimes' (Psychological analysis of an Infant and Toddlers' Home)

AUBRY, J. (1955) 'La carence de soins maternels' (Maternal deprivation)

DU PAN, M. and ROTH, S. (1955) 'The psychologic development of a group of children brought up in a hospital type residential nursery'

RHEINGOLD, H. L. (1956) 'The modification of social responsiveness in institutional babies'

DENNIS, W. and NAJARIAN, P. (1957) 'Infant development under environmental handicap'

RHEINGOLD, H. L. and BAYLEY, N. (1959) 'The later effects of an experimental modification of mothering'

DENNIS, W. (1960) 'Causes of retardation among institutional children: Iran'

DAVID, M. and APPELL, G. (1961) 'A study of nursing care and nurse-infant interaction'

RHEINGOLD, H. L. (1961) 'The effect of environmental stimulation on social and exploratory behaviour in the human infant'

PROVENCE, S. and LIPTON, R. C. (1962) 'Infants in institutions'

CASLER, L. (1965) 'The effects of extra stimulation on a group of institutionalised infants'

CASLER, L. (1965) 'The effect of supplementary verbal stimulation on a group of institutionalised infants'

DENNIS, W. and SAYEGH, Y. (1965) 'The effects of supplementary experiences upon the behavioural development of infants in institutions'

SCHAFFER, H. R. (1965) 'Changes in developmental quotient under two conditions of maternal separation'

SPITZ, RENÉ A. (1949) 'The role of ecological factors in emotional development',[1] *Child Development*, **20,** no. 3, 145–55.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A discussion of a series of studies carried out by the author on infant development towards the end of the first year of life. As the infant's social environment is mainly restricted to one person, the mother, its psycho-social development is studied in the light of this relationship.

SAMPLE AND METHOD

(*a*) Over a two-year period the development of infants in a 'nursery' where they were cared for by their mothers (239 children), was compared with that of infants in a 'foundling home' where they had no close and continuing relationship with one adult.

(*b*) In a study of auto-eroticism in infants, the babies of 16 mothers with depressive mood swings were studied.

(*c*) The children of another group of women, who handled their infants with a mixture of hostility and over-protectiveness, were also clinically studied.

The development during their first year of 'nursery' and 'foundling' children is tabulated, and the mortality rate. There are also tables relating developmental quotients to separation from the mother.

[1] Two films supplementing this research are available at the British Film Institute (*Grief: a peril in infancy*, 16 mm, sound, 35 min; and *Somatic consequences of emotional starvation of infants in institutions*, 16 mm, silent, 35 min.)

FINDINGS

1. Absence of emotional exchange with the mother resulted in a reversal of developmental trends. Developmental Quotients of the 'foundling home' group dropped steadily until the group average at the age of two years was 45. During the same period, 37% of this group died, whereas of the 239 children brought up by their mothers in the other institution, none died.

2. 11 children of the 16 depressed mothers developed coprophagie.

3. In the third series studied, infants typically showed aimless hypermotility and retarded social responses.

4. Further observation of separation of infant from mother suggested that if deprivation starts in the third quarter of the first year it can result in 'anaclitic depression'—continual crying, trembling, etc. Reunion with the mother will rapidly restore the developmental level if the separation has lasted less than three months, but if it has lasted longer than five months the decline continues, but at a slower rate.

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Current social arrangements tend to separate mothers from their infants, and conditions such as those described in the research are severely detrimental. The resulting distortions in development will become evident in the next generation. Preventive psychiatry, education for motherhood, and legislative changes enabling mothers to stay with their children are all required.

ROUDINESCO, JENNY and APPELL, GENEVIÈVE (1950) 'Les répercussions de la stabilisation hospitalière sur le développement psycho-moteur des jeunes enfants' (The effect of hospitalisation on the psychological and motor development of young children), *Semaine des Hôpitaux de Paris*, **26**, 2271–3.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A study of the effects of institutionalisation on young children and of their partial reversal.

SAMPLE

100 children aged from 1 to 3 years in a residential nursery, some short-stay cases and some who had been there since birth.

METHOD

The children were observed, tested on the Gesell scale and some were given individual play sessions several times a week over a period of weeks or months.

FINDINGS

1. Among the short-stay children, 71% were normal, 19% slightly retarded, 10% seriously retarded.
Among the long-stay children, 13% were normal, 32% slightly retarded, 55% seriously retarded.

2. The greatest retardation was in language.

3. The individual play sessions produced impressive gains in motor and social adaptation, but language retardation was harder to reverse.

ROUDINESCO, JENNY and APPELL, GENEVIÈVE (1951) 'De certaines répercussions de la carence de soins maternels et de la vie en collectivité sur les enfants de 1 à 4 ans' (On certain repercussions of maternal deprivation and collective upbringing on children aged one to four years)[1]. *Bulletin et Mémoires de la Société Médicale des Hôpitaux de Paris*, **67**, 106–20.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A study of the results of maternal deprivation as indicated by developmental test scores, and related to length of institutionalisation and age at separation from home.

SAMPLE

223 children aged between 8½ months and four years. 92 were from schools and day nurseries; 131 in a temporary residential nursery. All children were from working-class families.

METHOD

All children were tested on the Gesell scale. The average Developmental Quotient (D.Q.) of the following groups was then compared:

(*a*) All separated children aged 2·10 years to 4·0 years compared with all non-separated children in the same age group.

[1] A film supplementing the findings of this and associated research projects is available at the Tavistock Institute of Human Relations (*Maternal deprivation in young children*, 16 mm, sound, 35 min, English or French).

(*b*) Groups separated from home for from 1–16 days, 16–64 days, 64–128 days, and non-separated group; all compared.

(*c*) Children separated at different ages but for approximately the same length of time compared.

The authors then experiment with the construction of mathematical formulae that will represent the rate of deterioration in relation to age at separation and length of separation.

FINDINGS

1. The mean average D.Q. of all the separated children (including some who had only been away from home for a few days) was 25 points lower than that of the controls—the equivalent of one year's retardation. Motor development was 17 points lower than that of controls, language 36 points lower.

2. When groups separated for varying lengths of time were compared, D.Q. became progressively lower with length of institutionalisation. The group separated for the longest time was retarded by 31 points (the equivalent of 15 months).

3. Children separated after the age of 2·10 years appeared to deteriorate rapidly after separation, and then to settle, while younger children declined slowly. This finding is tentative, since fine divisions of length of stay could not be made.

4. Developmental Quotient appears to follow this formula: D.Q. = $94–13_{\log}$ D.S. (duration of separation). Speech deteriorates most rapidly, motor development least rapidly.

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Optimism about recovery from long experience of separation is misplaced. The deterioration may be reversible, but only after protracted psychiatric treatment. Institutional placement of such young children should be supplanted by fostering, even for short stays.

ROUDINESCO, JENNY and GÉBER, MARCELLE (1951) 'De l'utilisation du test de Gesell pour l'étude du comportement des jeunes enfants' (The use of the Gesell test in studying the behaviour of young children), *Enfance*, Paris, Sept./Oct. 309–22.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A clinical study of the testing of institutionalised children; part of a study of maternal deprivation in institutions.

SAMPLE

130 children between one and four years old in a residential nursery. On arrival the children were isolated for two weeks to avoid infection. Those tested fell into three groups: (*a*) they were between 12 and 17 months, separated from home for the first time, and just out of the nursery's quarantine; (*b*) they had lived permanently in care; or (*c*) they presented diagnostic problems.

METHOD

The Gesell test was administered to the children, and the following things noted: attitude to the tester coming to fetch them; attitude to tester in the test room—whether they did better with or without help and contact; attitude to the test material—interested, passive, or rejecting; behaviour at the end of the test, relinquishing test materials; behaviour on leaving the tester.

FINDINGS

1. Passivity was the commonest reaction to the test. There was a positive association between rapport with the tester, interest in the test materials, and good results on the test.

2. 10% of children were totally uninterested in the tester, and were virtually untestable; 24% ignored the tester in favour of the materials, and tended to score between 70 and 90; those who established a positive or negative relationship to the tester scored best, sometimes above 100.

DISCUSSION

1. Developmental Quotient alone is an inadequate indication of the development of institutionalised children; attitudes to the test and tester should be noted.

2. The meaning of psychological retardation is discussed, and the possibility of recovery.

HEGE, MARIANNE (1963) 'Psychologische Analyse eines Säuglings- und Kleinkinderheimes' (Psychological analysis of an infant and toddlers' home), *Praxis der Kinderpsychologie und Kinderpsychiatrie*, **12**, no. 1, 15–23; no. 2, 68–72.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

Analysis of the method of care in one particular Infant and Toddlers' Home, and an investigation of the effects of this care on the children living in the Home.

SAMPLE

36 of the 153 children living in this Home were selected for investigation. (Excluded were children who had not always lived there; who were ill or handicapped; or whose parents showed some mental abnormality.)

Most of the 36 children were of working- or lower-class origin. 77% were illegitimate. They had lived from birth in the Home. Details of their ages are not available.

METHOD

(*a*) Analysis of the Home environment by observation and investigation over a two-year period.

(*b*) Assessment of the developmental level of the children by means of Bühler-Hetzer development test, and by means of discussions with the nurses and the Home doctor.

FINDINGS

1. Group comparisons: in the youngest group of babies, most had reached the level of development normal for their age. The average level of development fell in the lower-normal range for this age. In the group of younger crawling babies the same results were obtained. The developmental level of the older crawling babies, and the group beginning to walk and play, in general fell below the norm for their age. On the other hand, the toddler group once again fell within the lower-normal range.

2. The rebellious phase took an extremely pronounced form and lasted noticeably longer. This was probably as a result of the very intensive toilet training.

3. In the area of motor development, the achievement level was normal throughout.

4. With regard to learning, all groups showed very marked deficiency. This almost certainly resulted from the very unruly group atmosphere and also from the fact that the children did not receive sufficient encouragement in imitating.

5. Use of equipment and materials: the results in this area were unsatisfactory. Creativity also appeared to be impaired. The conceptualisation of the children did not develop adequately for their age.

AUBRY, JENNY (1955) *La carence de soins maternels* (Maternal deprivation). Centre International de l'Enfance. 188 pp.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A study of maternal deprivation in a Public Assistance residential nursery in France, carried out under the auspices of the Centre International de l'Enfance, parallel to similar research directed by Dr John Bowlby. The research lasted for three years and was carried out by a team of psychologists, paediatricians, nursery-school teachers and social workers (see also page 96 for studies of the same nursery).

SAMPLE

All children at the Fondation Parent de Rosan, a reception centre and nursery for children aged 1 to 3 years; some admitted for temporary emergencies and some because of serious family pathology.

METHOD

Children were given a medical examination, Gesell tests and psychological observation over a period of time.

Detailed personal and family histories were compiled for each child; the physical and psychological development of the children and their reactions to separation are described; full case histories are given.

FINDINGS

1. *Physical condition.* Infants were more retarded than family-reared infants. Motor development was retarded, especially walking; muscular spasms were frequently noticed when adults approached; rocking and bizarre stereotyped movements were also observed.

2. *Results of Gesell tests*

(*a*) Long separations: test results were better than those obtained two years earlier before conditions in the nursery were improved. Language was still the most seriously affected area. Separations occurring after the age of two years were not so clearly reflected in Developmental Quotients. The total drop in quotients was much less steep than two years previously.

(*b*) Short separations: these test results were again better than in 1950.

(*c*) Qualitative aspects: the children appeared to be more alert and co-operative, less anxious.

3. Reactions to separations are classified as follows and illustrative case histories are given: distress with apathy; intense distress with tears; slight distress; easy adaptation.

Similarly, the following results of prolonged loss of maternal care are illustrated: reactive disorders, delayed development, psychological atrophy, personality disintegration.

Intensive therapy followed by foster placement was often successful in partially reversing these reactions.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The younger the child the more serious the results of maternal deprivation. Separation during the first year may leave irreversible deficits in psychological growth; between the ages of 1 and 4 years it leaves serious disturbances; and after this age, although intellectual and physical development is not affected, emotional development is still disturbed. A complete break with the family is most serious for children who have already acquired the feeling of belonging to it; under the age of a year the chief problem is quickly to find a substitute mother.

Recommendations for improvement of provisions in France for the care of young children at the time of the study are made. Provision of foster care and methods of educating workers in the needs of the young children are also discussed.

DU PAN, MARTIN and ROTH, S. (1955) 'The psychologic development of a group of children brought up in a hospital type residential nursery', *Journal of Paediatrics*, **47**, 124–9.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A description of the development of a small group of babies in a Swiss residential nursery.

SAMPLE

14 babies of about a year old: 5 boys, 9 girls. 12 had been in the nursery since birth, one since 12 weeks old, one since 14 weeks old. Reasons for their stay in the nursery: illegitimacy, mother working or ill, prematurity.

The nursery took 20–25 babies at a time, aged up to 18 months. Staff consisted of 3 senior nurses and 8–10 student nurses learning child psychology and care. Babies were fed on demand in the early months, cared for in small individual groups, well provided with toys and excursions, and allowed unrestricted visiting.

METHOD

The babies were observed and tested on the Gesell Developmental Scale.

FINDINGS

1. *Physical development.* Normal except for the premature infants.

2. *Developmental Quotient.* Median was 95, showing slight retardation which was partly caused by one ailing premature baby.

3. *Sub-tests.* Motor development, 101; adaptivity, 97; social development, 90; language development, 89.

4. *General development.* The babies were sociable and friendly. Although no follow-up was possible, parents taking children home at 18 months did not complain of any abnormality.

5. *Case history.* A baby from a differently run nursery, suffering from classic symptoms of 'institutionalisation', was brought to the nursery at 7 months and by 14 months his D.Q. had increased from 55 to 80.

CONCLUSION

The authors conclude that in optimal conditions, the development of infants in residential nurseries need not be far below that of family-reared infants.

RHEINGOLD, HARRIET L. (1956) *The modification of social responsiveness in institutional babies.* Monograph of the Society for Research in Child Development, XXXI, 63, 2. 48 pp.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A report based on a Ph.D. dissertation (University of Chicago, 1955) investigating the following questions: can institutionalised babies learn to respond selectively to one person? If so, will this involve withdrawal from strange persons? Will care by only one 'mother' have any other effect on the babies' behaviour?

SAMPLE

Four pairs of 6-month-old infants for the first experiment, matched as closely as possible for age, length of stay in the institution, and freedom from handicaps; four similar pairs for the second experiment.

The institution was a large urban hospital and orphan asylum. Babies were cared for by students on a child care course, supervisors, and volunteers from the community. They were handled and fed quite frequently, but seldom by the same person from one time to the next.

METHOD

In each experiment the author alone 'mothered' the four experimental babies from 7.30 a.m. to 3 p.m. five days a week for eight weeks, making every attempt to give them maximum pleasure and minimum frustration. Control babies followed the usual institutional routine.

To measure the difference between experimental and control conditions, an observer took time-samples of the number of adults in each

room and their activities with the babies, observing through glass windows each baby in rotation for 10-minute periods. Reliability of observations was checked with the experimenter and agreement was almost complete.

A graduate student, ignorant of the experimental design, gave the babies a battery of tests before and after the experiment and every Saturday during it. Tests included the Cattell Infant Intelligence Scale; social tests involving responses to smiling, speaking to and lifting the baby (these were given by both the author and the tester); tests of postural development and cube manipulation from the development schedules of Gesell and Amatruda. A stranger was also introduced in the eighth week and responses noted as part of the social tests. Tests were continued for 4 weeks after the experiment ended.

Several babies left the institution during the experiment, and some of the data were pooled to obtain results. Analysis of variance and *t*-tests were used on the data.

FINDINGS

1. *Time-sampling.* Babies in the control group were alone about 70% of the time, in the experimental group for 40% of the time. Caretaking acts were recorded for 7% of the time in the control group, about 21% of the time for experimental group.

2. *Observational data.* Hospital staff agreed that the babies in the study, as well as the other babies in the institution, at no time showed any special awareness of an individual outside the experimental periods. They were consistently sociable to all adults, but staff believed that the experimental babies became more placid than the others. When the experimenter ceased to visit, half the experimental babies were reported to be upset.

3. *Social tests.* Experimental babies became significantly more responsive to the experimenter than controls ($P < \cdot 001$), and—after the first weeks—slightly more responsive to the tester as well. They showed no significant avoidance of the stranger introduced in the last week, but 3 of the experimental children cried on her appearance. Negative responses to adults were rare in both groups. The experimental infants vocalised more than controls.

4. *Postural development.* Although the experimental babies performed slightly better on this test, results were not statistically significant.

5. *Cube manipulation.* Differences were not significant.

6. *Cattell Infant Intelligence Scale.* Experimental group: first test—mean 97·5; second test—mean 98·3. Control group: first test—mean 94·5; second test—mean 91·3.

The difference is not significant.

DISCUSSION

1. Although the babies clearly became more responsive to the experimenter, the exact reasons for this are not known. The author suggests that their response was evoked not so much by extra stimulus or gratification as by the *individual* attention and communication.

2. Increased awareness of the individual caretaker did not appear to cause fear of strangers.

3. In the other areas tested, experimental treatment may have made little difference for the reason that the institution provided an adequate environment for some kinds of learning.

DENNIS, WAYNE and NAJARIAN, PERGROUHI (1957) 'Infant development under environmental handicap', *Psychological Monographs*, **71**, 7.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A description of the development of babies and small children brought up in a Foundling Home in Beirut, Lebanon.

SAMPLE

(*a*) 49 Foundling Home infants, and 41 controls from an American Well Baby Clinic in Beirut. Controls, as well as the experimental group, came from poor backgrounds.

(*b*) A group of children aged $4\frac{1}{2}$–6 years from the same Foundling Home, who had had the same upbringing as the babies in the sample.

All the experimental children had been in the Home since birth. The Home was in a modern building, but was short of money and seriously understaffed. Routine care was hasty, and babies fed by a propped bottle in an enclosed crib. Swaddling was used up to the age of 4 months. Between one and three years of age children were put in play groups, and at four in a kindergarten.

METHOD

(*a*) All babies were tested at under and over six months by the Cattell Infant Scale.

(*b*) The older children were given the Goodenough Draw-a-man Test, the Knox Cube Test, and the Porteus Maze Test.

FINDINGS

1. After the age of 3 months, the experimental babies began to make lower scores than the control group. Median score up to 12 months: Foundling Home babies, 63; controls, 101 ($P < \cdot 001$). No experimental baby scored above 95.

2. The older children's scores on tests were about 10% below the norm for American children. Since Lebanese children have been found generally to reach the American norm, there was some retardation among the Foundling Home group.

DISCUSSION

The authors attribute the infants' low scores to the fact that their environment had provided no practice in sitting up, handling objects, etc. These results are compared to an experiment of one of the authors in rearing twins in a restricted environment. They are also compared to the findings of Spitz (see p. 95). Retardation in the present study could not be due to the breaking of an emotional tie, and the authors believe that restricted environment accounts for retardation in their own and Spitz's studies.

Early retardation nevertheless apparently did not cause very severe intellectual deficit in early childhood.

RHEINGOLD, HARRIET L. and BAYLEY, NANCY (1959) 'The later effects of an experimental modification of mothering', *Child Development*, **30**, 363–72.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

(*a*) To discover whether the effects of an experimental modification[1] of nursing care carried out in the United States by one of the authors on institutionalised babies (see page 103) were still apparent a year later.

(*b*) To assess the effects of differing types of subsequent home placement.

(*c*) To evaluate the effects of institutional life on all the infants previously studied.

SAMPLE

Fourteen of the original sixteen infants (seven experimental and seven control). Mean age of the experimental group was 19·8 months, of control group, 20·1 months. With the exception of 1 control still in the

1 The experimenter exclusively 'mothered' the babies herself in the institution for about 40 hours a week for 2 months.

institution, the group had spent an average of 9 months in the institution before home placement. Of the original experimental infants, 3 were back in their own homes, 2 in adoptive homes and 2 in foster homes pending adoption. Of the control group, 2 were in their own homes, 4 adopted and 1 still in the institution. The adoptive homes were on a higher socio-economic level than the natural homes, but on the whole there was no difference between them in intellectual stimulus or friendliness of the mother.

METHOD

Each child was seen in his new home by the original experimenter and an examiner who was unknown to the child and ignorant as to which had been experimental subjects. The following tests were administered.

(*a*) *Social tests*. These included responses to smiling, speaking to and approaching the infant; response of child to mother; and vocalisation. Results were recorded so as to determine the difference in experimental children's response to the experimenter and the examiner; and the difference in response between the two groups.

(*b*) *Cattell Infant Intelligence Scale*. This was administered by the examiner alone.

(*c*) *Vocalisation*. Size of vocabulary was estimated from the above and from mothers' reports.

FINDINGS

1. *Differences in response to experimenter and examiner by the experimental group*. No statistically significant differences were found, and the children evidently did not remember the experimenter.

2. *Differences in response between experimental and control groups*. 5 of the experimental group vocalised compared with 1 of the control group.

3. *Cattell Infant Intelligence Scale and Vocabulary*. No significant differences were found, though the experimental group had higher scores in both cases.

4. *Effects of differing home placements*. There was no reliable evidence that adopted children were more responsive or developmentally advanced than children in their own homes, in spite of the superiority of the adoptive homes.

5. *The group as a whole*. They were healthy, friendly, and normally intelligent. They showed no sign of emotional disturbance, and their vocabulary compared favourably with Gesell's norm. Several mothers said adopted children were easier to manage than their own children. There was no sign of apathy or attention-seeking behaviour.

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATION

1. The author was apparently not remembered. The experimental infants had not maintained the increased responsiveness recorded in the original experiment, but had retained their greater vocalisation. Verbal behaviour in young children may be more sensitive to changes than other types of behaviour.

2. Different home placements seemed to have had no effect. Possibly the number of cases was too small.

3. The whole group did not resemble the emotionally disturbed children described by some authors in studies of institutionalised children.

The author emphasises the need for more precise measurement of deprivation and its effects.

DENNIS, WAYNE (1960) 'Causes of retardation among institutional children: Iran', *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, **96**, 47–59.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A comparison of child care and associated behavioural retardation in three institutions in Teheran, to throw light on the nature of environmental factors influencing motor development between the ages of one and four years.

SAMPLE

123 children between 1 and 3·9 years selected from two public institutions; 51 children between 1 and 2·9 years from a private institution; all in Teheran, Iran, during the year 1958–9.

METHOD

(*a*) The type of care provided in the three institutions was observed and described.

(*b*) Children were classified according to their ability to sit, crawl and walk, tests being administered by a familiar adult. The percentage of children from each institution passing the tests is tabulated.

(*c*) General observations were made on social behaviour.

FINDINGS

1. *Type of care. Institution I* was for children under 3 years, nine-tenths of whom were admitted under one month. Attendants were untrained and poorly paid. Children were placed supine in cribs until they could move themselves; they were never propped up, and handled very little. No

toys were provided. *Institution II* was for children over 3 years, mostly from institution I. Standards of cleanliness, nutrition and health were lower than in the first institution. *Institution III* was for selected children up to 3 years and took the more retarded infants from institution I. Attendants were trained and looked after only three to four children each. Children were placed prone or propped up; above the age of 4 months they were often placed in playpens and handled frequently. Toys were provided. (This institution was intended to demonstrate improved methods of care.)

2. *Motor development*

(*a*) Sitting: only 42% of children between 1 and 1·9 years from institution I could sit and none could walk; compared with 90% sitting in the similar age group from institution III, and 15% walking alone. All normal home-reared American children sit by 9 months.

(*b*) Crawling: of 67 children in institutions I and II who engaged in pre-walking locomotion, only 10 crawled; the rest were 'scooting' (propelling themselves forward in a sitting position). All the 15 children from institution III who could get about, crawled on hands and knees.

(*c*) Walking: in institutions I and II, only 8% of children between 2 and 2·9 years, and 15% between 3 and 3·9 years could walk unaided, compared with 94% of children between 2 and 2·9 years in institution III.

The extreme retardation in children from the first two institutions was not permanent, since children aged 6 to 15 years in institution II were normal in motor development.

3. *Social behaviour.* In the first two institutions children were apprehensive of strangers; the older ones seeking attention. Children from the third institution showed little evidence of fear or attention-seeking behaviour.

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The differences in retardation between children in institution III and the other two Homes suggests that institutional life alone need not cause severe retardation. Malnutrition was not considered an influential factor, as most children were active enough to rock and 'scoot'. Paucity of handling and failure to prop up or place children prone in institutions I and II deprived them of opportunities for learning to sit and crawl, while children in the third institution benefited from these opportunities. The difference in pre-walking locomotion also stems from these factors. The author challenges the view that motor development is based primarily on maturation, and stresses the importance of learning

opportunities. He challenges the view that retardation is due to emotional deprivation, and believes it could be remedied by intensive specialised practice. It is recommended that research be undertaken into the speed with which delayed skills can be developed in institutionalised children.

DAVID, MYRIAM and APPELL, GENEVIÈVE (1961) 'A study of nursing care and nurse-infant interaction. A report on the first half of an investigation', in Foss, B.M. (ed.), *Determinants of infant behaviour*, Vol. I. Methuen, London.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

To observe and describe in detail two types of institutional care with respect to (*a*) multiplicity of 'caretakers', (*b*) amount of social contact between infants and nurses, and of isolation, and (*c*) interaction between nurses and infants.

SAMPLE

Infants admitted to a residential nursery for B.C.G. vaccination. Age: by implication, from soon after birth to about three months. Length of deprivation (separation from families) on average from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 months. Thereafter infants were returned to their families.

METHOD

Two groups were studied: (*a*) five cases receiving Routine Care (R.C.), (*b*) six cases receiving Intensive Individualised Nursing Care (I.N.C.). In the R.C. cases 64% of day care was given by two dominant nurses; 36% by a variety of nurses. In the I.N.C. cases the amounts were 88% and 12% respectively, increasing at times to nearly 100%. Thus, the main difference between the two groups was the amount of time spent with the infants by the two dominant nurses. The I.N.C. arrangement allowed more opportunity for contact between the dominant nurses and the infants.

Tables show, in much detail, differences between R.C. and I.N.C. including percentages of waking time in isolation and in social contact.

FINDINGS

1. Four aspects of long periods of isolation are noted:

(*a*) Small amount and reduced variety of environmental stimulation.

(*b*) Stimuli happen at random, not as responses to something coming from the child.

(*c*) The child gets little or no response to what he does, e.g. crying, smiling or achieving new progress. These receive attention only occasionally and irregularly.

(*d*) The absence of contact between nurses and infants does not permit interaction to become established.

2. Two factors appear dominant in institutional care:

(*a*) Isolation leading to poverty of external stimuli and lack of response to spontaneous behaviour, e.g. crying, smiling and new achievements.

(*b*) Lack of communication and interaction leading to decrease or lack of pleasure-unpleasure provided by human beings; poverty and inconsistency of responses to signals coming from the infant. Both these variables are related and their effects appear to be additive.

3. Aspects of nurses' attitudes to children in care are described: they found it difficult under I.N.C. to be consistently responsive to babies who stayed with them for so short a time.

CONCLUSIONS

There is need for further study of the interrelationships of the factors involved and of their impact on infants. This should lead to better understanding of the complex nature of maternal deprivation. Further work on this topic is in progress.

The discussion which followed the paper is also reported.

RHEINGOLD, H. L. (1961) 'The effect of environmental stimulation on social and exploratory behaviour in the human infant', in Foss, B. M. (ed.), *Determinants of infant behaviour*, Vol. I. Methuen, London.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

To assess effects of marked differences in environmental stimulation (own homes versus institution) on the social and exploratory behaviour of 3-month-old infants.

SAMPLE

30 infants, mean age $3\frac{1}{2}$ months, in two groups:

(*a*) Fifteen (7 male, 8 female) resident in an institution since the first week of life; varied socio-economic level of parents.

(*b*) Fifteen (9 male, 6 female) in own homes; first-born and three months old; socio-economic level of parents high.

METHOD

(*a*) *Techniques*. Time-sampling techniques, two observers making simultaneous observations. Observers' judgement checked for agreement.

(*b*) *Tests*. Social Test (see Rheingold, p. 104). In this test, the stimulus person was the examiner, equally strange to all the infants. Object Test—toy rattles *shown* to infants. Object in Hand Test—toy rattles *held* by infants.

(*c*) *Tables showing differences* in a variety of environmental details between home and institution with respect to treatment of infants by 'caretakers'; location of infant; infant activities; number of adults in neighbourhood of infant. Differences in responses to tests.

FINDINGS

1. In the case of institution infants, less environmental stimulation did not blunt visual exploratory behaviour nor reduce manual exploration of objects with which infants had no previous experience.

2. Institution infants appeared more socially responsive than home infants to the observer: smiled more quickly and more often; vocalised more often; reached out hands more often; gave fewer negative responses.

3. Object Test: there was little difference between the groups.

4. Object in Hand Test: institution infants looked at rattles in hand more often and for longer periods of time; looked more often to observer; manipulated them more often.

DISCUSSION

The author suggests that: (*a*) the institution environment, although sparse compared with that of natural homes, was adequate to develop both interest and skills in 3-month-old infants. (*b*) The environmental differences, although considerable, were not sufficient to affect many of the behaviours tested. (*c*) The institution environment cannot be equated with those set up experimentally to assess the effects of deprivation on animals. The institution infants could see people and things and use their hands. (*d*) Given a certain minimum, the quantity and nature of experiences may be irrelevant to the development in young infants, of the behaviours studied; or the institution infant may have greater leisure to explore and experiment with what the environment does offer; or the frequent change of caretaker in institution may offset the sheer amount of caretaking in homes; or the home infant may get more regular reinforcement. (A variable reinforcement schedule, such as the institution provides, is known to be more effective in maintaining responses.) (*e*) The social responsiveness of the institution infants, so contrary to

expectation, may resemble the effects of short-term deprivation; because these infants saw people less often they were more ready to be stimulated. Possibly they had learned that a greater response would keep the person near, knowing that the attention of an adult is a prelude to caretaking. Alternatively, if the institution infant is less capable of discrimination, a strange figure would evoke fewer negative responses than in the home-reared infants.

RECOMMENDATIONS

There is a need to discover, in detail, what properties in objects including novelty and familiarity evoke visual exploratory behaviour; and which special properties evoke smiles, vocalisation and signs of delight.

The discussion after the paper is also reported.

PROVENCE, SALLY and LIPTON, ROSE C. (1962) *Infants in institutions*. International Universities Press, New York. 191 pp.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A detailed observational study of the development of 75 institutionalised infants during their first year of life, comparing them with similar samples of family-reared and fostered babies, and with a follow-up of those from the sample who left the institution for foster care. Duration of study was 5 years. Sponsored by the Yale University Child Study Centre and Field Foundation, New York.

Orientation described as follows: psychoanalytical (with special reference to the work of Kris and Hartmann), combined with authors' training in paediatrics, research and clinical testing.

Statement of hypothesis: that the institutional environment is an impoverished one which has a seriously adverse effect on infants' development (and that this environment and its effects have not so far been studied in detail).

SAMPLE

75 institutionalised babies, with 75 family-reared and 75 fostered babies as control groups for general comparison. Age range: from 4 days to about 5 years, but investigation concentrated on babies under 12 months. Nationality: white American.

Health record: all babies were free of handicaps or neurological disorder, and were born at full term (though authors comment on handicapped babies and prematures incidentally observed).

All infants (except in control groups) were from one institution, and had been admitted at under 3 weeks old. The staff of the institution,

which provided good physical care, had limited educational backgrounds and no training in child development. All the infants were illegitimate.

METHOD

1. *Method of obtaining and recording information*

(*a*) Specific tests used: Gesell Developmental Examination, and Hetzer-Wolf Baby Test.

(*b*) Interviewing techniques: staff were asked for their informal comments on each baby.

(*c*) Case histories and follow-up material: one chapter on each.

(*d*) Other information on method: the institutional environment and routine is first described in detail. The institutional babies were examined by the two authors three to six times during the first year as follows: after obtaining the baby's history whenever possible, the baby was brought and nurse's comments noted. One author gave the tests and the other physical and neurological examination and measurements. The tests were used for general observation as well as literal scoring. Family-reared infants used as controls were given similar examinations for a different research project. The control group of fostered babies were given the Gesell Developmental Examination to compare scores.

2. *Methods of analysis of data*

In each area of infant development throughout the first year detailed descriptive findings are given, followed by discussion. The test results are used to give Developmental Quotient, profile comparing development in different areas, and general observations. Comparative D.Q. scores for institutional and fostered babies are tabulated. Two case histories are given of a family and an institutional baby, and impressions of 14 children later transferred to foster care.

FINDINGS

A. The institutional environment

1. Feeds (both of milk and foods) were given at set times by a bottle propped on the pillow. Later, children were fed rapidly by spoon in the cribs and had no chance to learn to feed themselves.

2. Bathing and changing was done rapidly with little time for play, although nurses were kindly to the babies.

3. There was little opportunity for interaction with adults or other children, and in particular for speaking or being spoken to.

4. Even older babies spent little time out of their cots. Toys were provided, but the babies did not play with them much.

B. Babies' development during first year

1. Motor behaviour: retardation from two months on, though less than in other areas. Excessive rocking.

2. Emotional expression and reactions to people: unusually strong visual interest in people, but no discrimination or attachment. Absence of play, unusual passivity and small repertoire of emotional expressions.

3. Language: severe retardation. Little vocalisation and no words at end of first year.

4. Reaction to objects: after 5 months, interest in toys was much below normal. Little experimentation, attachment to special toys or effort to recover lost toys.

5. Discovery of body and sense of self: self-exploring activities were rare.

C. General

1. The profile of areas of retardation tended to be similar in all institution babies.

2. Mean D.Q. (which normally declines during first year) declined more for institutional than fostered babies.

3. Premature babies were more retarded, even applying a correction factor.

4. Retardation was even more marked during the second year.

5. The babies differed in the degree to which they were retarded. This appeared to depend partly on such factors as attractiveness or being placed in a busy part of the ward, and partly on possible constitutional differences.

D. Follow-up

Follow-up of babies placed in foster homes during the second year showed great improvement, but language was still retarded, relationships to adults seemed superficial and behaviour on test items was often impulsive and inflexible.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Fuller recognition of the importance of the first year of life, and elimination of delays in home-finding.

2. More good foster-homes for infants not available for adoption. More money, status and assistance for foster-parents.

3. More and better trained staff for institutions; each nurse to care for only a few babies and give them more attention.

CASLER, LAWRENCE (1965) 'The effects of extra stimulation on a group of institutionalized infants', *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, **71**, 137–75.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

To investigate whether tactile stimulation would cause improved functioning in institutionalised babies.

SAMPLE

16 babies under one year old, from a residential nursery. They were divided into an experimental and a control group, matched for age.

METHOD

The experimental group were given gentle pressure on the skin (except for hands, mouth, and genitalia) by two women workers for 20 minutes a day, 5 days a week for 10 weeks. They were alerted before stimulation and given standardised verbal stimulation at intervals. The control group received the verbal stimulation and physical nearness without actual touching. The infants were then tested by the Gesell Developmental Schedule.

FINDINGS

The experimental group showed greater gains than the control group in the language, adaptive, and personal-social sub-tests, and in their total Development Quotient. No significant results were found in the case of the motor sub-test.

DISCUSSION

Factors that suggest caution in generalising from these results are listed and evaluated.

CASLER, LAWRENCE (1965) 'The effect of supplementary verbal stimulation on a group of institutionalized infants', *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, **6**, 19–27.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

An attempt to discover whether verbal stimulation alone would mitigate the ill-effects of institutionalisation in babies.

SAMPLE

Eight institutionalised babies, and a control group of eight from the same institution.

METHOD

Five days a week, for ten weeks, the babies heard the words 'one, two, three, four, five' repeated in an impersonal fashion in two daily sessions of ten minutes each. At the end of the experiment, they were compared, by means of the Gesell Scale, with the control group.

FINDINGS

There were no significant differences between the experimental and the control group.

DISCUSSION

Possible explanations for the ineffectiveness of the experimental programme are discussed.

DENNIS, WAYNE and SAYEGH, YVONNE (1965) 'The effects of supplementary experiences upon the behavioural development of infants in institutions', *Child Development*, **36**, 81–90.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

An investigation into the effects of providing extra stimulation for infants in an institution in Beirut.

SAMPLE

Five institutionalised infants and a control group of infants from the same institution, similar in chronological age and developmental age. The institution provided very little stimulation or individual attention.

METHOD

The infants were given tests of development, and a month later were tested again. In the interval the experimental group had been given about an hour of extra attention for 15 days.

FINDINGS

1. The experimental group made a mean gain in Developmental Quotient that was more than four times the average increase per month in the pre-experimental period.

2. The control group also gained more than usual, though not as much as the experimental group. The presence of the researchers may have caused extra attention to be given to all the children.

3. In the six weeks after the experiment very little gain was made by either group.

DISCUSSION

The authors conclude that extra attention can cause increased behavioural progress in environmentally retarded infants.

SCHAFFER, H. R. (1965) 'Changes in Developmental Quotient under two conditions of maternal separation', *British Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, **4**, 39–46.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A study of infants' development in two types of institution.

SAMPLE

22 infants who spent some months in a hospital (dealing mainly with respiratory and digestive illness and congenital abnormality), and 22 infants staying in a 'Baby Home' (a nursery for children needing B.C.G. inoculation). All the infants were placed in the institutions at about 3 months old, and left at about 7 months. The Baby Home provided a much more normal and stimulating environment than the hospital.

METHOD

By using a time-sampling technique, it was confirmed that the hospital group was left alone for longer periods and was more impersonally handled.

Cattell Infant Intelligence Tests were administered during the first week in the institution, during the last 3 days before discharge, about 2 weeks after return home, and about 3 months after return home.

FINDINGS

The mean Developmental Quotient of the Baby Home group progressed at a constant rate; that of the hospital group fell fairly rapidly after they entered the hospital, and rose rapidly after their return home.

DISCUSSION

Changes in the rate of development in infants seem to be swift and dependent on the immediate environment. Of three possible explanations of the slow development of institutionalised infants, the author prefers the hypothesis that maturation does take place, but is not 'energised' by the environment.

3. Residential care for children

Abstracts are listed in chronological order

EDMISTON, R. W. and BAIRD, F. (1949) 'The adjustment of orphanage children'

GOLDFARB, W. (1949) 'Rorschach test differences between family-reared, institution-reared and schizophrenic children'

BODMAN, F., MACKINLAY, M. and SYKES, K. (1950) 'The social adaptation of institution children'

EPSTEIN, S. Y. (1950) 'Institutional care of infants and young children in Israel'

CASTLE, M. (1954) 'Institution and non-institution children at school'

FEINBERG, H. (1954) 'Achievement of children in orphan homes as revealed by the Stanford Achievement Test'

LEWIS, H. (1954) 'Deprived children'

RAWLINSON, F. (1954) 'A comparative study of the rate of progress in attainment of institution children and of children from normal homes'

HEINICKE, C. M. (1956) 'Some effects of separating two-year-old children from their parents: a comparative study'

CONWAY, E. S. (1957) 'The institutional care of children: a case history'

DUEHRSSON, A. (1958) 'Heimkinder und Pflegekinder in ihrer Entwicklung' (The development of children in residential and foster care)

MCAFEE, S. (1958) 'An investigation into the effects of maternal deprivation'

PRINGLE, M. L. KELLMER and BOSSIO, V. (1958) 'Intellectual, emotional and social development of deprived children'

PRINGLE, M. L. KELLMER and BOSSIO, V. (1958) 'Language development and reading attainment of deprived children'

PRINGLE, M. L. KELLMER and TANNER, M. (1958) 'Effects of early deprivation on speech development'

KRAUSE, L. (1959) 'Besonderheiten der Charakterausprägung bei männlichen Jugendlichen in Heimen' (Distinctive characteristics of adolescent boys in institutions)

REBATTU, J. (1959) 'Bilan d'une enquête sur l'état de la population enfantine dans les 'orphelinats' Catholiques de la région lyonnaise' (Enquiry on the child population of Catholic 'orphanages' in the area of Lyon)

PRINGLE, M. L. KELLMER and BOSSIO, V. (1960) 'Early prolonged separation and emotional maladjustment'

PRINGLE, M. L. KELLMER and SUTCLIFFE, B. (1960) 'Remedial education—an experiment'

HOWLIN, E. (1961) 'A study of deprived children'

KRAAK, B. (1961) 'Die Praxis des Strafens in Heim' (Punishment in Children's Homes)

OLLEY, M. (1961) 'Deprived children: a comparison of deprived and non-deprived children on the Thematic Apperception Test'

PRINGLE, M. L. KELLMER (1961) 'Emotional adjustment among children in care. I. A firm friend outside'

RESEARCH DEPARTMENT, WELFARE OFFICE, JERUSALEM (1961) 'Children's Homes in Israel'

PRINGLE, M. L. KELLMER and CLIFFORD, L. (1962) 'Conditions associated with emotional maladjustment among children in care'

BANASIAK, J. F. (1963) 'Anxiety and its relationship to test performance in institutionalised and non-institutionalised children'

GAVRIN, J. B. and SACKS, L. S. (1963) 'Growth potential of preschool-aged children in institutional care'

JAFFE, L. (1963) 'The role of the social worker in the institution'

MAAS, H. S. (1963) 'The young adult adjustment of twenty wartime residential nursery children'

RESEARCH DEPARTMENT, WELFARE OFFICE, JERUSALEM (1963) 'Children in long-term institutional care'

STIER, U. (1963) 'Sozialhygienische Erhebungen an Hamburger Heimkindern' (A social-hygienic study of children in residential care in Hamburg)

WALTERS, G. (1963) 'A study of deprived children in family unit homes in three county boroughs in South Wales'

JAFFE, L. (1964) 'Institutionalisation of children'

JACKSON, K. M. (1965) 'Faceless families and forlorn children'

RECHERCHE SOCIALE C.A.F. (1965) 'Les placements dans les Maisons d'Enfants des Caisses d'Allocations Familiales' (Placement in C.A.F. Children's Homes). Volume I

RECHERCHE SOCIALE C.A.F. (1965) 'Les placements dans les Maisons d'Enfants des Caisses d'Allocations Familiales' (Placement in C.A.F. Children's Homes). Volume II

ZIV, A. (1965) 'La vie des enfants en collectivité. Étude de psychologie clinique' (Life in a children's community. A clinical study)

EDMISTON, R. W. and BAIRD, FRANCES (1949) 'The adjustment of orphanage children', *Journal of Educational Psychology*, **40**, 482–8.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

To investigate whether orphanage children attending state schools show different adjustment patterns from those attending schools attached to the Home, and from children living at home with their families.

SAMPLE

Three hundred and fifty-one children in residential care attending a state school, 707 attending the institution's school and 207 children living at home and attending a state school.

METHOD

All subjects completed the California Test of Personality. The following were factors in measures of adjustment:

(*a*) *Self-adjustment.* Self-reliance; personal worth; personal freedom; feeling of belonging; freedom from withdrawal; freedom from nervous symptoms.

(*b*) *Social adjustment.* Social standards; social skills; freedom from anti-social tendencies; family relationships; school relationships; community relationships.

I.Q. was measured by the Otis Quick Scoring Test of Mental Ability.

FINDINGS

1. State school attendance for children in residential care led to more self-reliance but less feeling of belonging. Outside contacts are desirable,

but people accepting contacts with the children should strive to give them a feeling of belongingness.

2. The longer the stay in the institution the less favourable the adjustment, particularly after eight years or more. The children became more disturbed as the time for leaving arrived. Those who were left due to lack of job placement were particularly disturbed. This emphasises the importance of adequate job-placement arrangements.

3. Children with one or both parents living showed better adjustment than orphans.

4. In some institutions adjustment compared well with that of children living at home. Research into the variations between institutions is recommended.

GOLDFARB, WILLIAM (1949) 'Rorschach test differences between family-reared, institution-reared, and schizophrenic children', *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, **19**, 624–33.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

To assess the similarities and differences in Rorschach Test responses between (*a*) institution-reared; (*b*) schizophrenic; and (*c*) fostered children; with particular attention to possible similarities between institutionalised and schizophrenic children.

SAMPLE

(*a*) Institution-reared children now in foster homes.

(*b*) Children diagnosed as schizophrenic at a psychiatric hospital.

(*c*) Children in foster homes, who had never lived in institutions and who had entered foster care early from their own families.

Each group contained 8 boys and 7 girls; average age 12 years 2 months.

METHOD

Rorschach tests were administered and the statistical significance of differences obtained evaluated.

FINDINGS

1. Deviate groups tended to be inferior to the control group (fostered children) in perception of reality, judgment, control and maturity.

2. Deviate groups were rather similar to each other in their deficiencies in rational control, regard for reality, intellectual and social drive, and emotional maturity.

3. The schizophrenic group, however, gave more perseverative responses, were more productive, and gave more original responses than the institution group.

4. The average I.Q. of the institution group was low; of the schizophrenic group normal.

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Both schizophrenic and institutionalised children showed impairment of personality, but the author relates the differences between them to differences in their anxiety level. Schizophrenic children respond to their disturbance with profound anxiety. Institutionalised children show little or no anxiety.

Complete reliance on the Rorschach Test is hazardous in child assessment; other varied techniques are necessary in addition.

BODMAN, FRANK, MACKINLAY, MARGARET and SYKES, KATHLEEN (1950) 'The social adaptation of institution children', *Lancet*, **358**, 173–6.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

To compare the maturity and degree of social adaptation attained by children brought up in institutions with attainments of children brought up in their own homes.

SAMPLE

51 children (19 girls, 32 boys) who had spent three years or more in institutions, and a control group of 52 school children brought up in their own families, the I.Q. of the institution group averaging 90·4 compared with the control group average 99·5. The institution children came from 12 institutions; the control children comprised 13 attending a senior school in Hertfordshire and 39 attending a senior school in Bristol.

Average age of institution children on admission was 4·4 years and the average stay 9·6 years (minimum 3·1, maximum 15·5). Transfers averaged 2·6 a child, the maximum number being 11. 30% had no contact with parents, sibs or other relatives; 28% had sibs at the same institution during part at least of their stay; 30% had visits from relatives but in the main very infrequently. Only 16 children received letters from relatives, illiteracy of relatives being the cause in some cases.

METHOD

The children in the two groups were classified to show comparisons in respect of the circumstances of their parents (dead, unmarried, in mental establishments, deserted, separated, divorced or invalid) and of the incidence among parents and sibs of factors which may have a constitutional hereditary basis, such as insanity, mental deficiency and epilepsy.

Other comparisons between the two groups related to choice of occupation before starting work; jobs actually secured; failure to adjust to working conditions; friendships within the institution, at school or elsewhere; persistence of friendships after leaving school or institution; contact with the opposite sex; use of social organisations after leaving; and social maturity as measured by Doll's Vineland Social Maturity Test (with some modification of scoring system).

FINDINGS

1. The institutional group were less socially mature than the control group, according to the Vineland test. This was evidenced by fewer contacts with the outside world, less exploration of the neighbourhood or use of means of travel, and less practical planning for the future. About a third of this immaturity might be attributed to the limitations of institutional life.

2. Less than 6% had no friends in the institution, but 30% had none after leaving.

3. Before leaving, less than 25% of the institutional group belonged to any youth organisation, compared with more than 50% of the control group, but after leaving a further 20% of the institutional group joined organised social activities, whereas more than 25% of the control group abandoned youth organisations.

4. Approximately five girls in the control group showed an interest in boys, for every one in the institutional group. Of boys showing interest in girls the corresponding figures are less than 2 to 1.

5. 40% of the institutional group secured the job of their choice as compared with 60% of the control group.

6. Within the first year or less only 22% of the institutional group changed their jobs, compared with over 35% of the control group.

7. More than 1 in 7 of the institutional group failed in their first job (all but one of dull intelligence).

8. More than a third of the institutional group, and less than a quarter of the control group, expressed a desire to secure promotion or acquire further skill—a desire apparently associated with at least average intelligence.

9. Of the institutional group 18% had relatives in mental hospitals, 18% in mental deficiency institutions and 37% had relatives guilty of anti-social behaviour. Of the control group there were none in the last category, but 11% had mentally defective sibs and nearly 25% had neurotic relatives.

10. The high proportion (72%) of the institutional group with relatives suffering from mental defect, disease or instability suggests that inherited constitutional factors contribute to their relative social immaturity.

11. When all the children in the institutional and control groups were regrouped according to the mental stability or otherwise of their parents, the difference between the social maturity of the two groups so formed was the same as that between the two original groups. This suggests that social maturation depends as much on constitutional as upon environmental factors.

EPSTEIN, S. Y. (1950) 'Institutional care of infants and young children in Israel' (title translated from Hebrew), *Megamot Child Welfare Research Quarterly*, **1**, no. 4, 347–65.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A summary of the care of infants and young children (chiefly of immigrants) in institutions in Israel.

Although in professional workers' opinion it is better to place children under three years in foster homes, most of the children are in fact placed in institutions.

SAMPLE AND METHOD

The inquiry studied 17 institutions including eight small family groups. These comprised almost all the institutions which kept children until the age of six—altogether 827 children. The author wanted to find out what kind of upbringing was given to children in the institutions. The Homes were mostly voluntary ones; the Welfare Office financed them, but management was in the hands of the voluntary organisations, and there was a lack of central planning and specialisation according to the needs of the children. In order to centralise planning, a special department was established for the care of infants and young children in the Welfare Office. Most cases were sent because of social problems. In two institutions one-third of the children were sent because of bad health. A large number of children had lost either father or mother. Most institutions specialised in one age group.

FINDINGS

1. The institutions were almost all situated in large buildings which were designed for this purpose, but insufficient attention was paid to play space.

More attention was paid to physical care than to education, and matrons were usually trained nurses who had no psychological education. The nurses themselves were only partly trained. They had secondary education, and on the average one nurse had to care for two children. The staff changed often, which affected the atmosphere adversely. There were no social workers in these institutions to maintain contact between the children and parents.

The children were kept inside the institutions and the provision for games was inadequate. In the large institutions there were many mentally retarded and bedwetting children.

2. Group Homes: in Israel it is not customary to care for children in foster homes because of housing conditions, the fact that many wives work, and the belief that institutions are the best solution. In the family group Homes there was also no pedagogical or psychological training. In four out of the eight Homes the children's development was quite satisfactory; in the four other institutions there were defects due to a limited budget, small staff, etc. It would have been preferable to pay a higher wage and choose homes more carefully.

CONCLUSIONS

1. Insufficient attention was paid to the children's psychological development.

2. There was a shortage of suitable staff with sufficient psychological training.

3. There was not enough specialisation according to individual needs.

4. There was a shortage of social workers, psychological tests, etc.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. To reduce the number of children placed in institutions by giving their families financial, technical and moral help.

2. To classify the children before placing them, according to their needs.

3. To develop apprentice homes and foster homes, as well as small family groups.

4. To set up a general plan for treating children according to age.

5. To found a centre for nurses and train them with more professional knowledge.

6. To keep the same nurses for each group of children.

7. To arrange monthly meetings where nurses and administrators could discuss problems, principles, etc.

8. To arrange effective control of institutions.

CASTLE, MARGARET (1954) 'Institution and non-institution children at school. The effect of social stresses on their relationships', *Human Relations*, **7**, no. 3, 349–66.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A study of group behaviour within a girls' school in a housing estate near a large industrial city, arising from complaints by teachers of the formation of hostile cliques by children from normal homes and from a set of Cottage Homes in the neighbourhood. The study attempts to relate the inter-group rivalry in school to external influences in the neighbourhood. It also suggests practical problems due to the social effects of legislation for the care of children deprived of normal family life.

SAMPLE

(*a*) 27 girls from a large institution, and 42 girls at the same school from normal homes. All were aged between 9 and 11½ years. The intelligence of the institution group was lower than that of the other group.

(*b*) Housemothers at the institution (a row of Victorian 'Cottage Homes').

(*c*) 39 families of the non-institutionalised schoolchildren.

METHOD AND FINDINGS

Three sources of stress were studied:

(*a*) *School*

Two-thirds of the girls were from normal homes; one-third from Cottage Homes. Two classes were studied by an observer, and relationships recorded in the form of sociograms.

Rivalry within the school was general. When natural home children, or institution children found themselves in a minority they 'ganged-up' into a hostile clique, to the detriment of school work and organisation. This rivalry had existed for at least twenty years. Responses from pupils revealed a consciously accepted cleavage between normal-home and institution children, the normal-home children having no doubt about their superiority.

(*b*) *The institution*

Housemothers were interviewed. Three sources of general insecurity appeared which might affect the behaviour of children in school:

(i) Recent legislation leading to adaptation of the Cottage Homes into small intimate family units, the existing arrangement being considered by modern standards too big, too regimental and too segregated.

(ii) Newer concepts of child development through encouragement of self-expression.

(iii) Constant turnover of child population.

As a result, the Housemothers (average age 48), reared themselves in strict, hard conditions with a poorhouse atmosphere, were bewildered and frustrated. They were afraid they would become responsible only for short-stay cases, thus preventing them from forming long-term stable emotional relations with any of their charges; also they had doubts about the outcome of new legislation on children's behaviour, and about their own capacity to cope in freer conditions. These fears made them ultra-sensitive to any appearance of hostility and rejection on the part of the local community, and 14 out of 21 Housemothers believed that the local community disapproved of them.

(*c*) *Parents of non-institution children*

The couples interviewed were mainly working-class people, striving to maintain an acceptable standard of living. There was a preponderance of large families, and some over-crowding.

Out of 39 sets of parents, 15 made dogmatic statements about institution children which were not based on first-hand knowledge of facts, or else were unwilling to express opinions. Opinions based on specific reasons were given by 24; 13 sympathetic and 11 openly hostile. Of the latter, some were ambitious for the academic progress of their own offspring and feared that institution children would lower the educational standards of the school, thus reducing the chances of 'scholarships'; others resented the free provision of amenities for institution children, while they had to work hard to provide for their own children. Hostility was particularly marked in cases over-burdened with domestic stress and responsibilities.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Refresher courses introducing new methods of child care to Housemothers.

2. A wide range of types of aid (not specified) to help whole communities accept the results of social planning which they themselves have not initiated.

FEINBERG, HENRY (1954) 'Achievement of children in orphan homes as revealed by the Stanford Achievement Test', *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, **85**, 217–29.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A study of the performance of children in orphan homes on the Stanford Achievement Test.

SAMPLE

138 children from orphanages in Detroit—77 boys and 61 girls. The average age was 12 years, and the mean I.Q. 105.

METHOD

The children's scores on the Stanford Achievement Test were compared with those of children from foster homes and of maladjusted children studied in previous research.

FINDINGS

1. Children from orphanages were less retarded than the maladjusted group, but more retarded than the children in foster homes.

2. When re-tested six months later, they showed a decrease in achievement.

3. Correlations between sub-tests completed by the orphanage group were lower than those of the foster home group but higher than those of the maladjusted group; correlations between individual children's scores, however, exposed greatest uniformity in the orphanage group.

4. For all children, achievement in arithmetic and science was poorer than in literature.

DISCUSSION

The general achievement of the orphanage children compared with foster home children may be related to the protection afforded by the institutional environment, where conformity was especially valued.

The children in all three groups were emotionally disturbed. More strenuous attempts should be made to rehabilitate their families so that the children could return home.

LEWIS, HILDA (1954) *Deprived children.* Oxford University Press. 163 pp.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A description of the intake and functioning of the Mersham Reception Centre for the classification of deprived and homeless children; and a follow-up of the children's histories after leaving the Centre, in order to assess the success of Reception Centres and relate the children's backgrounds and personalities to final outcome. Sponsored by the Nuffield Foundation.

SAMPLE

500 children admitted to the Mersham Reception Centre in Kent between 1947 and 1950, in care for various reasons ('fit person' order, inability of relatives to provide, juvenile courts, etc.) Nearly one-third had some delinquency in their backgrounds, and in general the sample contained the most difficult and deprived children in the county. 55·4% boys, 44·6% girls (more boys having come before the juvenile courts). Age: Boys up to 12 years, girls up to 15. Lower age limit not stated, but below 5 in some cases.

Scholastic records were generally poor; also there was a slight preponderance of dull children, and on testing, verbal intelligence and attainment standards were found to be below non-verbal intelligence. Health record: 21% were in poor physical condition, 38% underweight.

Socio-economic status: there was a preponderance of parents from the lowest class; incomes and stability were low, and housing bad. Families were larger than the national average. 86 parents (not couples) were dead, and 53 untraceable. The majority of the rest showed social deviance such as drunkenness, crime, or mental illness. 23% of children were illegitimate.

Reasons for placement: cruelty and neglect, 122; pilfering, delinquency etc., 154; loss of parental care, 78; moral danger, 29; other causes, 117. About half the children had previously been removed from home by the L.A. After leaving Mersham it was recommended that one-twelfth should return home, one-fifth go to foster-homes, over one-third go to institutions, and the rest to special schools, etc. 76% of these recommendations were carried out.

18 children had been adopted. A majority of the whole sample had experienced separations due to wartime evacuation. 63% had been separated for over 2 months. Some had had 6–8 previous changes of home. At the Reception Home, 30% stayed less than 3 weeks, 47% 3–6 weeks, the rest longer.

METHOD

(*a*) *Method of obtaining and recording information.* The children were observed, and on the basis of history and observed behaviour, were classified according to general mental well-being ('very good' to 'very poor') and type of behaviour (normal, 'unsocialised aggressive', 'socialised delinquent', 'over-inhibited neurotic', 'mildly unsocialised aggressive', 'mildly socialised delinquent', 'mildly neurotic'). Classifications were made by the author alone.

Intelligence tests were given to all but 9 children, and those over 5 and staying longer than 6 months were tested for reading and arithmetic attainment. A physical examination was given and health rated on a 3-point scale. Incidence of certain symptoms was noted. Certain social attitudes were defined, and their incidence noted.

Factors in the child's background were noted, and their incidence related to the child's condition at reception ('normal', 'mildly disturbed', and 'definitely disturbed'). Family backgrounds were sorted into 3 categories ('parental rejection', 'neglect and bad company', and 'constraint'), and related to the behaviour categories noted above. Separations from the mother were noted and related to categories of behaviour. Problem-family backgrounds were related to categories of behaviour.

After leaving, children were followed up for 2 years by letters to the Welfare Officer or other responsible person. 50 boys and 50 girls (and those in charge of them, and their teachers) were also visited, interviewed, and assessed. Results of the postal enquiry and personal visit were compared.

(*b*) *Methods of analysis of data.* Numbers and percentages tabulated. Correlations calculated, and chi-square tests used. Findings described and discussed.

FINDINGS

1. At reception, 24% were assessed as normal, 31% slightly disturbed, 45% definitely disturbed. 300 out of 500 showed severe anxiety.

2. 162 were enuretic; this was not associated with delinquency. 134 had pilfered; of these, 77% showed severe anxiety, compared to 54% of the rest.

3. The group of children from homes classed as 'dirty', 'neglectful' or 'mother of low intelligence' contained a significantly higher proportion of normal children ($P < 0{\cdot}001$) than the rest of the sample.

4. The groups reported to have experienced 'maternal lack of affection' and 'separation before the age of 5' contained significantly more definitely disturbed children ($P < 0{\cdot}001$).

5. The following variables were significantly associated: mentally ill mother or 'constraint' in the home background with the 'inhibited neurotic' behaviour pattern; 'parental rejection', 'lack of affection' and 'previously in care' with 'unsocialised aggression' behaviour pattern; 'father lacking affection' and 'neglect, bad company' with 'socialised delinquent' behaviour pattern.

6. 83% of children with lasting separations from their mothers below the age of 5 were disturbed, and of those who were not, most were judged to have been attached to a mother-substitute. Among those separated before the age of 2 there were a significantly greater number of disturbed children than in the whole sample, and a very significantly greater number than among those who had never been separated ($P < 0{\cdot}001$).

7. There was no significant association between amount of separation and delinquent behaviour.

8. Only 19 children were judged 'affectionless', and 10 of these had not been separated from their mothers for more than a few weeks.

9. Although families classed as 'problem families' had more quarrelling and alcoholism in their histories than the others, significantly more of their children were normal than in the rest of the sample, and were doing well at follow-up. More mothers in this group were classed 'affectionate' than the others. Groups of siblings were less disturbed than single children.

10. Postal follow-up reports on the children after leaving were found to have been rather optimistic when personal visits were made.

11. 63% of the children were judged to have improved at follow-up, 29% were unchanged, and 8% were worse. Neurotic symptoms persisted more than delinquency. Those placed according to recommendations had done better than the others.

12. No type of placement was outstandingly more successful than another.

13. The closer the child's contact with relatives, the better his condition.

14. Children separated from their mothers before five were significantly worse than the rest at follow-up; over two-thirds were in unsatisfactory condition.

15. Very little progress in reading and arithmetic had been achieved at follow-up.

16. 76% of children referred for stealing had ceased to do so, but a third of this number were unsatisfactory in other ways. Children who had ceased to steal did not produce neurotic symptoms.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Parents should be encouraged to keep in touch with their children in care. For children with strong family ties residential Homes may be better than foster-homes.

2. More Reception Homes should be provided, with adequate psychiatric resources. Reception Home staff should be in close and informal contact with child care workers and with area psychiatric services.

3. Children under five should only be admitted to Reception Centres with their siblings.

RAWLINSON, FRED (1954) 'A comparative study of the rate of progress in attainment of institution children and of children from normal homes', M.Ed. thesis, Manchester University.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A comparison of the school progress made in one year by institutionalised and non-institutionalised children, with an additional comparison of their interests and of their behaviour problems in school.

SAMPLE

16 boys from Grouped Cottage Homes attending four schools, and 16 controls (of poor socio-economic background) matched for school, age (to within 5 months), I.Q. (to within 5 points), and sex. All the institutionalised children had been admitted after the age of 3, and most after the age of 5. I.Q.s ranged from 77–100. The experimental sample originally consisted of 37 institutionalised children, but between the beginning and ending of the study (about 18 months) only 19 had not been moved.

METHOD

Pairs of matched children (experimental and control) were tested at the beginning and end of a year for attainment in mechanical arithmetic, English, and spelling (group tests), and reading and vocabulary (individual tests). The scores of each child on initial and final tests in each subject were converted into mental ages and from these an improvement ratio was calculated. The significance of the difference between the mean improvement ratios of each group was calculated by *t*-tests.

Children were asked to list their interests, and teachers rated all children on 7 behaviour problems.

FINDINGS

1. On every test the control group improved slightly more than the institution group, and on the vocabulary test the difference was significant at the 5% level.

2. Behaviour problems were ascribed much more frequently to the institutionalised children (48 mentions compared to 14 for controls).

3. There was little difference in the interests, hobbies and adult ambitions recorded by the two groups. The control group visited the cinema far more often (up to 6 times a week) and went to Sunday School or church far less often.

DISCUSSION

The following facts may have prevented the differences between the groups from being even more significant: (*a*) all the institutionalised children had spent their early years at home; (*b*) the Cottage Homes probably provided the best institutional environment possible.

HEINICKE, CHRISTOPH M. (1956) 'Some effects of separating two-year-old children from their parents: a comparative study', *Human Relations*, **9**, no. 2, 105–76.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A pilot study of small children's experience of separation under two conditions: in a day nursery and a residential nursery. The study, carried out at the Tavistock Clinic and Institute of Human Relations, aimed to compare the effects of two degrees of separation, mild and severe, by intensive observation of the children's reactions in the nursery, in doll play, and with parents.

SAMPLE

(*a*) Residential nursery group: 3 girls and 3 boys, median age 22·0 months. 3 nurseries, with rather similar routines, were used. Length of stay was about 3 weeks.

(*b*) Day nursery group: 3 girls and 4 boys, median age 22·7 months. 3 different rooms in a day nursery were used.

All children had had no previous placement, did not enter the nursery with a sibling, were living with both parents before placement, and were apparently not placed because rejected by the parents.

The two groups were similar in regard to parental income, though the residential group was of slightly higher social status.

Reasons for placement: the day nursery group were the children of working mothers, and the residential group were placed because of confinement, illness, or holidays.

METHOD

Three observational methods were used:

(*a*) Categories of behaviour (derived from a system of R. F. Bales) were set up. Each act was scored in terms of: agent, object, general relation, specific relation, mode of expression, and intensity of action. General relations were subdivided into: nurturance, succourance, restrictive demands, achievement demands, techniques of control, hostility, activity/inactivity. Having first been contacted before entering the nurseries, the children were observed by two workers (maintaining an attitude of friendly passivity) for an hour a day at varying times in the nursery, and behaviour scored in terms of the above categories. Clinical impressions were also dictated into a tape recorder immediately after. Discussion, definition and comparison ensured that the two observers were scoring reliably.

(*b*) A similar scoring system and dictation of clinical impressions was used when each child was individually observed playing with a standard set of dolls and furniture (as used by P. S. Sears).

(*c*) Children were observed (though not so systematically scored) in their interactions with parents before separation, when visited, and on their return home.

FINDINGS

A. In the everyday nursery setting

1. Residential children cried more than day children, especially in trying to reach parents and other adults. They mentioned their fathers more than their mothers.

2. The groups did not differ in amount of contact-seeking with adults, but the residential group more frequently sought affection.

3. Residential children rather more frequently resisted nurses' demands, especially those relating to toileting.

4. Residential children showed significantly more severe hostility.

5. They indulged in more thumb- and finger-sucking.

6. Day children spent more time in general activity.

7. Residential children had significantly more lapses in sphincter control.

8. 5 out of the 6 residential children caught heavy colds, and none of the day children.

B. In the doll play situation

1. Residential children played significantly more, and more eagerly, than day children, and cried significantly more when the experimenter left.

2. Residential children spent significantly more time in very hostile play (29% as compared to 1% for day children), and broke seven pieces of equipment (day children broke none). The mother doll was particularly used in this play.

3. Significantly more residential children had a breakdown in sphincter control during play session.

C. Parent-child interaction

Before evaluating impressionistic material, it was determined, by means of compared rankings, that parents of children in the two groups did not differ in regard to rejection of the children (none being severely rejecting).

1. Response to parents' presence: day children were glad to see their parents when fetched, but some residential children cried or turned away, and after the 10th day of separation showed less affection. All were exceptionally greedy when sweets were brought.

2. Crying among residential children reached a peak and declined.

3. Responses to mothers were varied on returning home, but all residential children showed a strong preference for fathers. After 3 weeks family relations were outwardly normal.

4. Aggression, lack of sphincter control, and sleeping difficulties were all observed or reported during the first two weeks after return home.

DISCUSSION

The various ways in which the residential children differed measurably from the day children demonstrate that separation was more stressful for the former. The author suggests that parents of children at this age help them to control impulses, and provide a balance between affectionate and aggressive feelings which it is especially disturbing for the children to lose. The symptoms of the separated children are ways of dealing with this loss.

CONWAY, EDWARD S. (1957) 'The institutional care of children: a case history', Ph.D. thesis, University of London.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A detailed study of the history, administration and population of the Jewish Orphanage, Norwood, London, with assessments of children

and staff; the aim being to examine the outcome of institutional care for children over five in a contemporary setting.

SAMPLE

All children and staff of the Orphanage. The institution is a voluntary one and not typical of residential Homes in general. No children under five are admitted. The children (220 at the time of the study) are grouped in 'families' according to age. Various recreational facilities are provided: Scouts, youth groups, football, cricket, tennis, indoor games, dancing and music classes, and expeditions. Visits from and with relatives were common, and some of the children were similar to those in a boarding school population.

METHOD

(*a*) A full history of the institution since its foundation in 1807 is given.

(*b*) The admission procedure, organisation, everyday life and health care at the Orphanage are described.

(*c*) The following data are analysed and tabulated: age of children, duration of stay and reasons for admission.

(*d*) Institution children were assessed on a Character Profile Form by class teachers and houseparents. All members of the class were rated at the same time to form a control group. Teachers did not know the object of the enquiry. The children were sorted into groups, compared with controls and factors in their background analysed to see how they related to assessed personality.

(*e*) Characteristics of houseparents are described, analysed and tabulated.

(*f*) Houseparents were asked whether or not they had a good relationship with each child, and whether the child had frequent contact with relatives or friends outside the Orphanage, and results are classified and tabulated in order to ascertain the relative influence of parents, friends and houseparents.

(*g*) 34 case histories, 50 tables and other appendices are included. No statistical tests of significance were made.

FINDINGS

A. Children

1. Residence in the institution did not usually exceed three or four years. Length of stay could not always be foreseen.

2. When children were classified according to character assessments made by both teachers and houseparents, the majority of institutional children did not form a conspicuous body uniformly different from the

controls. 10% were classified as problem children, and 30% as well-balanced. More Orphanage boys (particularly younger ones) than girls were disturbed, and a number of them were markedly worse on 'bad conduct', laziness, temper, aggression, inattention and solitariness.

3. Houseparents' assessments were more favourable than teachers'.

4. When normal and disturbed children were examined separately, a stable relationship with an adult, security about the future or good progress in work and sport appeared to be more important factors relative to normal children than legitimacy, social background, frequency of visits, length of institutionalisation, etc. There was a higher proportion of mentally or physically ill parents in the background of this group.

5. Factors associated with disturbance in children were early admission, small families and neurotic parents.

6. The author believes that disturbance decreased with length of stay, and relates this to the atmosphere and tradition of the Home rather than to the influence of individuals.

B. Staff

7. The annual average staff turnover in the years 1952–5 was 9·75%. The reasons were, in general, lack of privacy and long hours; recommendations are made for improving conditions.

8. Most staff were untrained; but in spite of the value of training, suitability of temperament was the most important factor in successful residential work. None of the male staff had intended originally to become houseparents (they came to the work from male nursing, teaching, etc., or as a refuge from personal problems); few intended to stay in that branch of child care work.

9. Most staff, male and female, were single, because married staff were not accommodated or recruited. The author questions the wisdom of this policy.

C. The relative influence on children of parents, friends and houseparents

10. Good parent-child relationships were generally associated with good relationships with other adults, particularly in younger children; but where there was much contact with parents, the relationship with houseparents—even if good—was detached, which was often frustrating to staff.

11. Among older children, length of stay in the Orphanage was associated with good relationships with houseparents. In general, if a child was reconciled to separation from home, he made good relationships at the institution.

12. Houseparents' assessments of relationships reflected their own personality differences, as well as the children's.

13. While some of the most balanced children were those who were regularly visited, those infrequently visited were very disturbed by visits.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Problems in fostering are discussed and the value of institutional care for children with family ties emphasised. Investigation into the advantages of providing schooling within institutions is recommended. A National Child Care Service is proposed, to raise standards of staff and to link the 'in care' population with the boarding-school population. The training of a new type of houseparent-social worker is also recommended, acting as counsellors rather than parent substitutes. Distribution of the financial responsibility for child care is discussed. Finally, the success of any system of child care will depend on the ability of those who work in it to use parent-child relationships to the best advantage.

DUEHRSSON, ANNEMARIE (1958) *Heimkinder und Pflegekinder in ihrer Entwicklung* (The development of children in residential and foster care). Göttingen, Verlag fur Medizinische Psychologie. 161 pp.

SCOPE AND METHOD

A comparative study of 150 children aged 6 to 7½ years explores the consequences of the early life experiences in institutions, foster homes and own families respectively. Intelligence tests, observation in play groups, interviews and social histories were gathered.

FINDINGS

Children from institutions showed marked deficits in intelligence, ability to abstract, school readiness and interpersonal relationships. The severity of the deficit was less for foster children and least for those reared in their own homes. All groups displayed neurotic symptoms, but the incidence was greatest among children from institutions.

MCAFEE, STUART (1958) 'An investigation into the effects of maternal deprivation', B.Ed. thesis, Queen's University, Belfast.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A comparison of projective material (drawings) produced by small groups of institutionalised and non-institutionalised boys.

SAMPLE

Three groups, each of 15 boys, matched for age, I.Q., religion, and socio-economic background. One group had been in a Catholic institution since birth, one group were institutionalised after 5 years of age, and one group came from normal homes. None had had any specific training in drawing.

METHOD

The Goodenough Draw-a-Man test and the Machover Draw-a-Person test were administered individually by one investigator. Drawings were scored blind by three judges on the appropriate variables; level of agreement was high and a majority decision was accepted in case of disagreement. Raw scores were tested for significance by chi-square test.

FINDINGS

Most of the predictions were confirmed, i.e. the most deprived group produced significantly more drawings with the face missing or vague, with rigid arms, or arms or fingers missing, and significantly poorer drawings, all suggesting disturbed and shallow emotional and social capacity. The group institutionalised later in childhood fell, in general, between the two other groups, suggesting that they also had suffered considerable impairment.

PRINGLE, M. L. KELLMER and BOSSIO, VICTORIA (1958) 'Intellectual, emotional and social development of deprived children', *Vita Humana*, **1**, no. 2, 65–92, and in Pringle, M. L. Kellmer, *Deprivation and education*, Longmans, London, 1965, Chapter 2.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A study of the development and achievement of a sample of deprived children, and comparison where possible with the ordinary school population to test whether the ill-effects of deprivation are more marked when: (*a*) the first separation from mother occurred early; (*b*) separation lasted a long time; (*c*) deprivation was severe.

SAMPLE

Children aged 8 years ($N=50$); 11 years ($N=50$); 14 years ($N=42$). 80 boys and 62 girls, living in Cottage Homes; sexes separated and grouped by age.

Reasons for admission: illness or death of parent(s); extreme poverty; divorce; eviction; neglect; ill-treatment; mental illness or conviction of parent(s); child out of control.

METHOD

Each group was divided into: early or late entry (first separation before or after 5 years); short or long stay (less or more than one-third of life span in care). This gave four sub-groups: early entry/long-stay; early entry/short stay; late entry/long stay; late entry/short stay.

Also three sub-groups were distinguished: mildly deprived, deprived and severely deprived, according to the degree of contact between children and their parents, foster parents or relatives respectively.

Tests used: five group intelligence tests (Cornwell, Moray House, Sleight, Raven's Progressive Matrices, Simplex) applied to different age groups.

Five individual tests and assessments (W.I.S.C., Doll's Vineland Social Maturity Scale, Raven's controlled projection test for Children, Bristol Social Adjustment Guides for teachers and residential staff, and an interview using a formalised recording schedule).

Statistical Test: '*t*' test, analysis of variance (simple and pooled results), chi-square.

FINDINGS

A. Intelligence

1. On verbal, non-verbal and W.I.S.C. full-scale tests, the mean I.Q. of each age group was within the average range, and the proportion of deprived subjects of average intelligence was similar to that expected in the population as a whole; but the proportion of educationally subnormal and dull was higher; and of bright, lower than among children generally.

2. Early entrants into care obtained consistently lower mean I.Q.s than late entrants in all three age groups ($P > 0{\cdot}05$).

3. The length of time a child had spent in residential care had no effect on mean I.Q.s.

4. The more severe the deprivation the lower the mean I.Q. ($P > 0{\cdot}05$).

B. Emotional development

1. Co-efficients of conformity on the Raven Projection Test were considerably below the mean for the general population.

2. Classification on Bristol Social Adjustment Guide: stable 35%; unsettled 32%; maladjusted 33%—again, a much lower incidence of stability than that for ordinary children.

3. The more intelligent group (11-year-olds) were also more emotionally stable.

4. The most common symptoms were: anxiety about adult interest and affection (65%); general educational backwardness (60%); restlessness and inability to concentrate (50%).

5. In the interviews, three types of symptoms were most frequent: infantile and aggressive behaviour (40%); compulsions and self-punishment (53%); over-anxiety to gain attention (60%).

C. Attitudes toward other people

Three well-marked behaviour patterns were noted; normally affectionate and friendly (37%); clinging, craving attention, unable to make lasting attachments (42%); affectionless, withdrawn, aggressive (8%).

D. Social development

Social quotients of the deprived sample were near or somewhat higher than in the general population. Two groups were found: social quotients higher than I.Q.s (unsettled or maladjusted 67%; stable 33%); social quotients equal to I.Q.s (unsettled or maladjusted 56%; stable 44%). Thus the incidence of unsettlement and maladjustment was higher in the socially accelerated sub-group, suggesting that social competence might be achieved at the cost of emotional disturbance and delinquent tendencies.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

1. The marked preponderance of dull children was probably due to multiple factors. The effects of constitution and environment before institutionalisation were impossible to assess.

2. The 11-year-old group was relatively superior (to 8- and 14-year-olds) in intelligence and other aspects. This may be due to better capacity for accepting separation and a new environment at that age than at younger or adolescent ages. More investigation with bigger samples is needed.

3. Intellectual backwardness was more marked in cases of early separation.

4. Among *late* entrants, long-stay children showed higher mean I.Q.s than short-stay ones. Children placed after 5 years of age may have developed sufficient emotional maturity to adjust successfully. Short-stay children may not have had time to re-adjust to the new environment.

5. Intellectual backwardness was more marked when children had no contacts with their family (i.e. severe deprivation).

6. This sample of deprived children clearly showed more serious emotional disturbance than ordinary children. This may have been due more to separation from families than to the effect of residential life.

7. The majority in each age-group was accelerated in social as compared with intellectual development; this may have been due to the circumstances of communal living.

8. In general, both qualitative and quantitative differences were found between institutionalised and ordinary children. The most serious ill-effects were related to early separation or complete deprivation rather than to sheer length of institutionalisation.

PRINGLE, M. L. KELLMER and BOSSIO, VICTORIA (1958) 'Language development and reading attainment of deprived children', *Vita Humana*, **1**, nos. 3–4, 142–170, and in Pringle, M. L. Kellmer *Deprivation and education*, Longmans, London, 1965, Chapter 3.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

To measure language development and reading attainment in the sample of institutional children previously described, with special reference to: age of entry into care; length of separation; degree of deprivation.

SAMPLE

142 children in Cottage Homes. Three groups: 8-year-olds ($N=50$); 11-year-olds ($N=50$); 14-year-olds ($N=42$).

METHOD

The following tests were administered:

(*a*) *Group test:* Schonell Silent Reading Test, Form B.

(*b*) *Individual tests and assessments:* Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale, Oral Definition Form; Watts English Scale and Vocabulary Test for Young Children (8 years old); Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (W.I.S.C.); Schonell Graded Reading Vocabulary Test (8 and 11 year-old).

Results were compared and the significance of differences assessed statistically.

FINDINGS

1. *Language development*

(*a*) Language Quotient in this sample (Mill Hill Vocabulary) was well below average for the general population. Two-thirds of the sample had quotients of below 85.

(*b*) The 8-year-old group was relatively the most backward.

(*c*) Early entrants (admitted to care before 5 years old) received lower mean scores in all age-groups. Early entrants (long- and short-stay) consistently obtained mean quotients lower than later entrants (long- and short-stay).

(*d*) Groups arranged according to length of separation from families showed no significant differences.

(*e*) Quotients of the mildly deprived were higher than of the deprived, which were higher than those of the severely deprived. (Degree of deprivation was assessed by amount of contact with parents and relatives.)

2. *Intelligence*

(*a*) Each age-group received higher mean I.Q.s on *performance* than on *verbal* items in the W.I.S.C. (full scale).

(*b*) No significant differences in *performance* quotients were found between early and late entrants, between children who had been in care for shorter or longer periods, or between the severely and slightly deprived.

3. *Reading attainment*

(*a*) The mean reading quotients of the total sample and of the 8 and 14-year-olds were well below the average range.

(*b*) There were approximately twice as many children backward in reading as in intelligence (W.I.S.C. full scale).

(*c*) Early entrants were consistently lower in reading attainment in all three age-groups but differences did not reach statistical significance.

(*d*) Length of institutional life did not result in significant differences or consistent trends.

(*e*) The mean reading quotients of the mildly deprived were higher than those of the deprived, which again were higher than those of the severely deprived.

4. *Emotional stability*

The proportion of stable children among backward readers was considerably lower than among the sample as a whole.

CONCLUSIONS

1. The marked backwardness in language development found in this sample of deprived children suggests that living in residential care tends to curtail knowledge of everyday activities, particularly in younger children.

2. The degree of backwardness in language development was considerably higher than in measured intelligence or in reading attainment. This supports the view that the effects of deprivation tend to be more detrimental to language development than to any other aspect of the developing personality.

3. A very serious degree of backwardness in reading *comprehension* was revealed. Also, the greater the backwardness, the greater the incidence of unsettlement and maladjustment.

4. These findings suggest that assessing intelligence in deprived children by predominantly verbal tests is very likely to result in an underestimate.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. The use of non-verbal methods of estimating intelligence is desirable.

2. The most effective period for the prevention of ill-effects is during the preschool years. Better provision is needed of nursery schools, smaller classes and special teaching skills for children in difficult home conditions or in care.

3. Remedial education based on a *total* approach to a failing child (including creative and therapeutic activities) is urgently required.

4. The establishment and long-term maintenance of contact with an affectionate adult, not necessarily a relative, is most important in preventing emotional maladjustment among children in long-term care.

5. More systematic studies of the adequacy of substitute relationships at different ages is needed.

PRINGLE, M. L. KELLMER and TANNER, MARGARET (1958) 'Effects of early deprivation on speech development', *Language and Speech*, **1**, no. 4, 269–87; and in Pringle, M. L. Kellmer *Deprivation and education*, Longmans, London, 1965, Chapter 7.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A quantitative and qualitative analysis of differences in speech development between pre-school children living in residential nurseries and those living with their own families and attending nursery schools. Four questions were posed:

(*a*) Are pre-school children in care retarded in language development?

(*b*) If so, are all aspects equally affected?

(*c*) Even if retarded, is their speech developing along normal lines?

(*d*) What differences are there (if any) between the two groups in their use of speech for social intercourse?

SAMPLE

Eighteen pairs of preschool children matched for sex, age, intelligence, home background; all chosen so as to be within the average intelligence range.

Group N: Children attending a nursery school (living in own homes);

Group R: Children from three residential nurseries.

Half of the deprived group were taken into care before the age of 18 months. The nursery school accepted only hardship cases, and the residential nurseries had children who predominantly came form low educational and cultural conditions; thus, both groups had broadly comparable home backgrounds.

METHOD

Estimates of attainments in vocabulary, sentence structure and spontaneous speech were made. Tests used:

1. *Vocabulary tests*

(*a*) Terman-Merrill Intelligence Scale Picture Vocabulary Items.

(*b*) Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children, Vocabulary sub-test.

(*c*) Recording of speech used in free play.

2. *Tests of ability to understand and speak in simple sentences*

(*a*) Verbal items in Merrill-Palmer Scale for preschool children.

(*b*) Watts English Language Scale (used for basic sentences and ability to describe pictures).

(*c*) Recording of spontaneous, undirected, verbal expression in free play.

There was a minimum of adult participation in the children's activities.

Tables are given showing attainment ages, types of words used and other differences of a qualitative kind between Groups N and R.

FINDINGS

1. Wherever quantitative comparison was possible, Group N was superior to Group R. Differences ranged from 5 to 15 months.

2. Group N:

(*a*) In conversation used wider vocabulary (5,039 words as against 3,984), showed better descriptive powers and more mature sentence formation.

(*b*) Tended to show a greater degree of active participation and aggressive self-assertion.

(*c*) Took for granted adult interest in their activities, made frequent reference to own activities and possessions.

(*d*) Showed more co-operative play activities, more spontaneous social and less egocentric speech.

(*e*) Made greater use of verbally expressed fantasy and showed more capacity for humour.

3. Group R was more anxious for adult attention; spoke less of themselves and their belongings.

4. A considerable overlap between the groups was found. This suggests that although Group R was retarded in formal aspects of language, their speech was developing normally.

5. Some possible explanations are suggested for the observed differences.

CONCLUSIONS

Although considerable overlap in achievement was observed between the two groups, the evidence confirms some degree of retardation in language skills in the case of pre-school children living in residential nurseries. The effects observed seem likely to have long-term consequences, e.g. readiness to begin schooling and ability to learn to read may be adversely affected.

KRAUSE, LUDWIG (1959) 'Besonderheiten der Charakterausprägung bei männlichen Jugendlichen in Heimen' (Distinctive characteristics of adolescent boys in institutions), thesis for the University of Munich.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

Analysis of the distinctive characteristics of male adolescents living in institutions. (In this context the term 'institution' covers children's homes, orphanages and residential schools.) The effect of life in an institution on the character development of children and adolescents is investigated.

SAMPLE

250 subjects aged six to 20 years. The criteria governing the selection of institutions do not emerge from the thesis. (According to the author, however, who spent a number of years as a teacher in institutions, they are representative for German conditions.) There were four different institutions.

METHODS

The method employed was that of systematic observation (further details not given) based on many years of work in institutions.

All the 250 boys were observed for 18 months, after which 98 were eliminated. The remaining 152 were observed until the 30th month. This led to the elimination of a further 75. The remainder (77) were observed until the 42nd month.

Methods of evaluation are not given in detail. It is merely stated that the observations were 'summarised numerically'.

MAIN FINDINGS

1. *Self-valuation.* An acute or latent inferiority complex was conspicuous (in 78% clearly recognisable; in 10% considered highly probable). The cause of this inferiority complex was the position in relation to society in which the adolescent found himself (the stay in an institution was felt to be negative).

Effects of the inferiority complex: more or less pronounced aggression; a certain amount of over-compensation; unrealistic ambition; concealed sarcasm, sometimes genuine humour.

2. *Possessiveness.* By their talk and behaviour, about 73% of the subjects studied showed evidence of "business sense". A gradual hardening of this attitude was related to length of stay in the institution, but not to age. There was much interest in bartering, selling, and buying. Furthermore, a strong interest in collecting was generally noticeable among the adolescents.

3. *Human relationships.* 45% had positive relationships with the adults in institutions; 30% an ambivalent attitude, and the rest a negative relationship.

The author is of the opinion that adolescents living in institutions project their attitude to their parents onto the adults living in the institutions. In almost every case the relationship between child and staff agreed with that between child and family.

4. *Relationship with companions.* The author concluded that there was an unusual degree of rivalry among the children and adolescents in the four institutions investigated. This was expressed by pronounced self-assertion (sometimes accompanied by perfectionism). A strong sense of

justice was found in 92% of the children, which must largely be considered the result of rivalry. However, in addition to all the rivalry, good human contacts and friendships were also observed. There was no evidence of impaired ability for social contacts or ties arising from strong rivalry.

5. *Sex.* The question of sex was latent for six- to ten-year-olds. Individual and mutual masturbation occurred occasionally, but seemed to arise from neurotic or inadequate development. From the eleventh year, i.e. during puberty proper, masturbation reached its peak. At about the age of 14, 79% of all these children and adolescents had to cope with such problems.

6. *Attitude to girls* (among the 16- to 20-year-olds). About 59% of the adolescents investigated were extraordinarily interested in the other sex and constantly sought contacts, but at the same time displayed strong inhibitions and frequently even a hostile attitude (ambivalent feelings).

7. *Intellectual performance and practical abilities.* The teachers of the children and adolescents who were consulted did not report any differences in performance as compared with other children of the same age, nor did the teachers in the vocational school (Berufsschule).

From 87 to 90% of the subjects were very practical (clothes and shoes kept clean, beds made, etc.) In addition, they often had the chance to use and improve specific artistic abilities in institutions.

8. *Overall character of children in institutions.* 86% were very active towards their environment (running errands, ready participation in excursions, etc.); 5% behaved more passively.

RECOMMENDATION FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Systematic further observation required after discharge from the institution, particularly for scientific evaluation.

REBATTU, ABBÉ JACQUES (1959) 'Bilan d'une enquête sur l'état de la population enfantine dans les "orphelinats" Catholiques de la région lyonnaise' (Outline of an enquiry on the child population of Catholic 'orphanages' in the area of Lyon), *Sauvegarde de l'Enfance*, Paris, **14**, nos. 7/8, 517–32.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A description of the population of 21 Catholic Children's Homes in France. The enquiry was carried out for the 'Centre de Liaison des Oeuvres Catholiques' between March and June, 1956.

SAMPLE

1,019 children, the entire population of 21 Homes. 304 were boys, 715 girls. 102 children were aged 3–6 years, 419 aged 7–10 years, 392 aged 11–14 years, and 106 were over 14. All children were in care because of some form of family inadequacy.

METHOD

Heads of Homes were asked to fill in a form (included in text) for each child in their care, with the aid of social workers and the secretary of the Centre de Liaison de Oeuvres Catholiques.

351 children were also given intelligence tests. Results are described and tabulated.

FINDINGS

1. 17 children were total orphans, 260 orphaned of one parent. The rest came from homes broken for various reasons.

2. 77% of children stayed in the Home less than 3 years.

3. 283 children were judged by staff to be maladjusted. The author comments that this figure is only a subjective approximation.

4. Of 951 children of school age, 385 were judged to be retarded in school work.

5. Mean I.Q. of the sample tested was 101.

6. 57 children were not visited by any relative; 188 children were never taken out by relatives. Of 996 children for whom the question was answered, 575 spent holidays with relatives or friends.

7. In a sample of 221 children from Catholic Homes studied in 1958, 67 children came from broken homes, 66 were orphaned of one or both parents, 47 came from 'disturbed' homes (by delinquency or illness), 32 from single mothers, 9 from stable homes.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

1. The name 'orphanage' should be discarded, since most children in Homes are not orphaned.

2. Greater specialisation in care is desirable; total orphans should be found adoptive homes, and children with functioning families cared for temporarily at moderate cost, in special Homes. The 'orphanages' would then take children who had one or both parents but could not live at home, and would care for them while attempting to rehabilitate the family.

3. Homes should be divided into small family groups where possible.

4. Reception Centres should recommend suitable placement and care for short-stay children, leaving the population of the Homes fairly stable.

5. Full records should be kept for each child.

PRINGLE, M. L. KELLMER and BOSSIO, VICTORIA (1960) 'Early prolonged separation and emotional maladjustment', *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, **1**, 37–48; and in Pringle, M. L. Kellmer, *Deprivation and education*, Longmans, London, 1965.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

Previous studies of a sample of children in care (see p. 141) indicated that over 30% were considered by their teachers and the House Staff to be stable when rated on Bristol Social Adjustment Guides. This suggested that separation and institutionalisation do not necessarily result in maladjustment. This study aimed at an intensive exploration of differences between children found to be respectively stable and emotionally disturbed.

SAMPLE AND METHOD

Two groups of children were selected from the main sample of 142 cases according to the following criteria:

(*a*) The first removal from home had occurred before the age of five years.

(*b*) The child had lived apart from parents for more than half its life span; had been rated either notably stable or severely maladjusted on the Bristol Social Adjustment Guides, Raven's Projection Test and clinical observations by the investigators; was of average intelligence (between 85 and 114 on the W.I.S.C.).

As a result, five notably stable and 11 severely maladjusted children were selected—11 boys and 5 girls, some from each of the 8-, 11- and 14-year age-groups.

Sixteen case histories are given in detail, including test results and personality assessment.

FINDINGS

1. The mean quotients of the notably stable group were consistently higher than those of the severely maladjusted group, particularly for the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale (93·6 as against 72·90); Schonell Silent Reading Test B (98·2 as compared with 75·2); Raven's Projection Test (78·0 as against 42·4).

2. The stable group all established good relationships with both adults and children. All but one had remained with their mothers until well after the first year of life. All had experienced a dependable and lasting relationship with a parent or parent substitute after they went into care.
3. The maladjusted children had had no opportunity to establish and consolidate stable relationships with parent figures and seemed unable to make relationships with adults or children.

DISCUSSION

The outstanding difference between the two groups was the establishment and maintenance or otherwise, of stable satisfying attachments to adults.

The stable group—although deprived of family life and physically separated—were cherished by adults who were important to them, even if they had never lived with them. The critical factor seemed to be acceptance or rejection by adult figures—parents or parent substitutes—leading to self-valuation or otherwise on the part of the children.

The investigation suggests that physical separation and prolonged stay in an institution do not necessarily lead, by themselves, to emotional difficulties or character defects.

PRINGLE, M. L. KELLMER and SUTCLIFFE, B. (1960) 'Remedial education—an experiment', Caldecott Community; and in Pringle, M. L. Kellmer, *Deprivation and education*, Longmans, London, 1965.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

Since previous studies have revealed a high proportion of educational backwardness among children in care, an experimental, remedial unit was set up to explore the effectiveness of remedial work. The emphasis was on modifying defeatist attitudes to learning, restoring self-confidence and stimulating curiosity. Creative and therapeutic activities were an essential ingredient.

SAMPLE

Children of junior school age (7–11 years) were selected for treatment. Criteria: I.Q. 85 or above (Terman-Merrill scale); backward in reading, arithmetic or both. Retardation was defined as discrepancy of two or more years between mental age and attainment level.

There were 27 cases (5 girls and 22 boys). Of these, 21 lived within the Caldecott Community; 5 in Children's Homes (Local Authority); 1 with a foster family. Conditions within the Community were rather more favourable, both from the points of view of staffing and cultural

amenities, than those in the average Children's Home. Nearly all children came from seriously disrupted backgrounds and were severely maladjusted.

METHOD

(*a*) For two years, each child was taught individually by a specially trained teacher for at least an hour a week. They were tested before and after remedial treatment.

(*b*) Tests used: Terman-Merrill Intelligence Scale, Schonell Graded Reading Vocabulary Test, Schonell Silent Reading Test A, Schonell Mechanical Arithmetic Test A.

(*c*) Case histories: details are given for each of the 27 cases regarding their home background, emotional and social adjustment; chronological age, mental age, I.Q., backwardness (discrepancy between tested attainment age and chronological age), retardation (discrepancy between tested attainment age and mental age); each before and after treatment.

FINDINGS

1. Remedial treatment helped all the children to increase their rate of educational progress.

2. In about half the cases, improvement in general adjustment was noted.

3. Attitudes to learning improved. Alleviation of emotional maladjustment was noted. Improvement was associated more frequently with progress in reading.

4. Long-term effects of treatment on reading were satisfactory. On re-test all but one of the cases had maintained or increased their rate of progress.

5. Improvement in arithmetic was not maintained. On re-test all but one case did as badly or worse than before treatment. It is suggested that: (*a*) traditional methods of teaching are unsatisfactory; (*b*) a real change of attitude toward the subject was observed in only a few cases.

6. Most rapid progress was made by the children from the Local Authority Home. Possible reasons: environment of the Home less favourable than that in the Community. Hence the remedial treatment had a relatively greater impact and resulted in more stimulation than for the Community children who were more used to individual attention, smaller teaching groups, adequate provision of books, toys, creative activities, etc.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. The establishment of this experimental remedial unit for deprived and maladjusted children was amply justified.

2. The desirability of setting up remedial units in Children's Homes on a full- or part-time basis deserves serious consideration.

3. Further study is needed regarding to the relationship between learning difficulties, especially in arithmetic, educational maladjustment and special teaching methods.

HOWLIN, E. (1961) 'A study of deprived children', B.Ed. dissertation, Queen's University, Belfast.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A comparison of the intelligence of a small group of institutionalised children and of controls (see also p. 157).

SAMPLE

16 boys from an Irish Catholic orphanage who had been in the institution since before their third birthday; age range 9·1–10·8 years. With one exception all were within Grades III and IV on Raven's Progressive Matrices.

A control group of 16 boys matched for age, religion, socio-economic background, and (as far as possible) intelligence as assessed by the Progressive Matrices test.

METHOD

Each subject was given the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children and Burt's Graded Vocabulary Test. Differences between scores on all tests and sub-tests were compared.

FINDINGS

1. On the following tests the institutionalised children's scores were significantly poorer (0·01 or 0·02 level): full-scale I.Q., verbal I.Q., reading test, and arithmetic test.

2. On the following tests there was no significant difference between the groups: performance I.Q., and most but not all performance sub-tests.

3. When the institutionalised group was compared with controls matched only for age, sex, religion, and socio-economic background, their scores on Raven's Progressive Matrices were significantly lower.

KRAAK, BERNHARD (1961) 'Die Praxis des Strafens im Heim' (Punishment in children's homes), *Praxis der Kinderpsychologie und Kinderpsychiatrie*, **7**, 255–9; **8**, 293–7.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

To find out how punishment is administered in Children's Homes in Germany.

SAMPLE AND METHOD

1,230 questionnaires were sent to 121 Children's Homes; 254 were fully completed and analysed for the study. Staff of the homes ('educators', 'group leaders', students, teachers, houseparents and social workers) were asked to describe three punishments ordered or carried out in the past two weeks.

FINDINGS

1. *Reasons for punishment.* Restlessness (talking in bed, at meals, etc.), 61 cases; disobedience (not doing homework, etc.), 49 cases; doing forbidden things (untying the dog, picking nuts, etc.), 34 cases; impudence (refusal to wash, etc.), 34 cases; quarrelling, 21 cases; carelessness with clothes and furniture, 20 cases; unruliness (jumping into puddles, etc.), 11 cases; stealing from other children (apples, chocolate), 10 cases.

2. *Purpose of the punishment.* To make a permanent change in the child's behaviour, 69 cases; to make an immediate change in behaviour, 49 cases; to help the child understand his behaviour, 30 cases; as an example to the other children, 12 cases; as atonement, 11 cases; as repayment, 5 cases; to repair damage, 4 cases; no reason given, 29 cases.

3. *Types of punishment.* Corporal punishment, 67 cases; extra housework, 42 cases; deprivation of privileges, 37 cases; isolation, 22 cases; sent to bed, 18 cases; ridicule, 15 cases; public reprimand, 14 cases; ignoring the child, 13 cases; sending the child out of the dormitory, 12 cases.

4. *Other factors related to punishment.* Sex: restlessness more common in girls, unruliness in boys. Age: impudence and quarrelling more common in younger children. Size of group: disobedience more common in groups of less than 15, restlessness more common in larger groups. Size of Home: Homes with over 80 children more frequently mention restlessness. Sex and age of staff: men, and older staff, more frequently mention disobedience and impudence: men more often mention deterrence as the purpose of the punishment.

5. *Factors influencing the kind of punishment.* Sex of child: girls were more often sent out of the dormitory for talking. Age of child: younger children more often punished with loss of privileges and isolation, less often with

corporal punishment; older children more often reprimanded. Staff training: trained staff more often punished children by isolation, and less often by sending to bed. Age of staff: staff aged under 30 used corporal punishment less, and more often related the punishment to the offence.

OLLEY, M. (1961) 'Deprived children: a comparison of deprived and non-deprived children on the Thematic Apperception Test', B.A. dissertation, Queen's University, Belfast.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A comparison of the T.A.T. responses of a small group of institutionalised children and of control subjects (see also p. 155).

SAMPLE

16 boys from an Irish Catholic orphanage who had been in the institution since before their third birthday; age range 9·1–10·8 years. With one exception all were within Grades III and IV on Raven's Progressive Matrices.

A control group of 16 boys matched for age, religion, socio-economic background and (as far as possible) intelligence as assessed by the Progressive Matrices test.

METHOD

An abbreviated set of T.A.T. cards were shown to the children individually in familiar surroundings. Responses were tape-recorded, with the children's knowledge.

Six characteristics attributed to deprived children had been listed, and linked with variables from the T.A.T. scores. Two sets of scores on each variable were obtained: rating of intensity on a 5-point scale, afterwards divided into those who fell above and below average; and frequency of occurrence. Significance of results was tested by chi-square. Twelve psychology students acted as judges, after instruction. Stories and variables were assigned to them at random.

FINDINGS

1. Of the 10 variables, the following were significant: institutionalised subjects expressed significantly less Press Affiliation, Need Affiliation, and Need Nurturance, and significantly more Need Succorance; suggesting a lonely, dependent rather than a hostile personality type.

2. The institutionalised group made far more mentions of accidents and maiming (not necessarily reflected in scores), and their stories were more confused and poor.

3. The institutionalised group made far more mentions of separation and sadness (significance levels 0·02–0·001).

PRINGLE, M. L. KELLMER (1961) 'Emotional adjustment among children in care. A firm friend outside', *Child Care*, **15**, 5–12, and in Pringle, M. L. Kellmer, *Deprivation and education*, Longmans, London, 1965, Chapter 11.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

An extension of the investigation reported in 'Early prolonged separation and emotional adjustment' (see p. 152).

SAMPLE

Two groups of children from the original sample, all of whom had been separated from home before the age of 5 years; had lived in care for more than half of their life span; were average in tested intelligence; had been rated as notably stable or severely maladjusted. Five notably stable and 11 severely maladjusted children were selected.

METHOD

When the children's adjustment had been assessed on several measures by teachers and psychologists, they were tested on language development and reading, and case records were scanned for possible differences between the groups.

FINDINGS

The most marked difference between the two groups was the amount of contact maintained with parents or parent-substitutes. This suggested that acceptance or rejection by adults outside the Homes is a significant factor in the causation of severe maladjustment. Acceptance could be effective even when the child had never lived with the particular adults.

DISCUSSION

In support of this conclusion, two case histories are given of (*a*) a girl aged 10½ years, severely maladjusted; and (*b*) a boy aged 10 years, notably stable.

RESEARCH DEPARTMENT, WELFARE OFFICE, JERUSALEM (1961) *Children's Homes in Israel.*

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

The various agencies for placing children in Israel (Welfare Office, Youth Aliyah and the Department of Social Work in the three chief cities) saw an urgent need for research on elementary needs of children in Homes. It was thought that without research on the institutions themselves it would not be possible to suggest new arrangements and, in 1957, 33 institutions were selected for study.

METHOD

(*a*) Information was gathered on all existing arrangements in the institutions.

(*b*) Material was classified.

(*c*) Conclusions were summarised by experts, and recommendations for the future formulated.

FINDINGS

1. *Licensing and supervision.* A licence is not required to open a children's Home apart from permission to install plumbing, etc. Schools are supervised by the Ministry of Education; boarding schools are either in the hands of the Welfare Office or the Youth Aliyah. There is great variation in the frequency of inspections.

2. *The structure itself.* Children's Homes are mostly under the ownership of public organisations, and public representatives take a direct part in managing them. Responsibility for employing staff is generally in the hands of the superintendent.

22 Children's Homes were built in the form of scattered homes, while 11 had a large central building. Half of the Homes had baths, but all had showers, including installation for hot water, available at least twice a week.

3. *Staff.* Only four of the superintendents had academic qualifications. Their chief role is educational and administrative. Superintendents' wives sometimes worked in the Home. In several Homes the superintendent and his wife ate with the children, but in many cases they ate separately.

The responsibility for administrative work and accounts lies with a secretary, and every Children's Home is required to employ one. On average, there was one worker for every 5·87 children.

Most workers lived in the Home. In most cases Homes did not provide further training for staff but left it to individual initiative.

4. *The Homes.* In every Home there were rules about child observation by the staff, and regular staff meetings where various problems were considered. There was no care after the children left the Home, but some Homes were aware of this lack and intended to provide after-care as soon as possible. In most Homes there was a committee of the children themselves to plan activities, sports, etc.

There were considerable differences in the size of groups, but the average number was 35 children. All Homes had fixed hours for homework and free time. In all, there were clubs with group activities. Activities often depended on the abilities and talents of the instructor. There were libraries in all Homes and the children were guided in their reading. In some, there were dramatic performances, films and a choir in which children of all ages took part. Short trips were undertaken during the year and a long trip once a year. Prayers were only organised in religious Homes.

In most Homes the children worked in the school farm or yard or in the neighbourhood. There were three branches of work—services, agriculture and handicraft. Some of the Homes arranged an outing for the whole group (visiting theatre, going on a trip, etc.) in exchange for the work done. Some children had contacts with outside children through youth movements, clubs, swimming pools, etc. Most of the children were sent home for holidays. All the Homes allowed parents to visit.

The instructors did not always have high-school education. They were responsible for most of the social activities, helped with homework and gave individual care. They generally lived with the children and shared their meals.

The educational background of the nurse varied. Her role was not so clearly defined as that of the instructor, but was chiefly to look after health, clothing, etc. The housemothers were experienced and mostly aged 35–40. Their role was to look after the housekeeping, give instructions to the nurses, inspect dining rooms, kitchen, clothes, etc.

Out of the 33 Children's Homes, 14 also ran their own school; the others sent children to schools outside. In all Homes the school was under the control of the Ministry of Education, and helped children with additional lessons, if necessary.

5. *Health.* In general, a doctor visited at fixed times, and most Homes had trained nurses. Before being accepted, the children had to pass physical examinations, and from time to time were given routine examinations. The average number of beds for sick children was about 5 for every 100, a much higher proportion than that of the State of Israel where there are about 6·5 beds for every 1,000 people.

6. *Nutrition.* All kitchens were situated on the ground floor near the dining room. All had refrigerators and hot water. It was usual for staff to eat with the children and supervise them. Most Homes took payment for these meals from the staff.

Menus were fixed by the Ministry of Education. The children had a duty rota for kitchen work.

7. *Clothing.* There was usually a central store, and also a special card index for every child. Clothes were distributed to the children on fixed dates.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. *Licensing and supervision.* There should be one supervisory authority for Children's Homes whose function would be to issue licences and standardise conditions. There should be inspection and instruction for the supervisor and the whole staff.

2. *The structure.* For every Home there should be a committee responsible for all its activities. It is desirable that public representatives should be active in this committee.

3. *The staff.* The supervisor should be responsible for all activities and should report on staff to his superiors. He should supervise the work of his staff as well as direct and co-ordinate. He should be equipped with pedagogical training, administrative qualifications and educational experience. The technical and administrative work should be done by the supervisor's assistant.

While the janitor should be responsible for all repairs, etc. the children could often participate in this work. Teachers should be appointed according to the regulations of the Ministry of Education. The number of workers in kitchen, stores, etc. should depend on the number of children in the Home. The supervisor, nurses, housemothers and instructors should live in the Home.

The instructor should know the social background of the child, and the supervisor should decide if there is any need to send him for special treatment. One staff member should help with individual children's problems and maintain contact between families and the Home. Teachers should also take part in staff meetings, and finally the social worker should deal with placements, either in the family or in Homes.

4. *Group life.* The aim of the group should be to enable the children to live in society. Mixed education should be one of the principles of the Homes. The position of children in the groups should be discussed at staff meetings.

Age differences within the group should not be more than three years; they should all live in the same building, and a group should not include more than 20 children under 10. From the age of 10 the number could be increased to 30.

Daily routine should be an important factor, and should be flexible, according to the age of the children; it should include learning, working and group activities.

Special plans should be made for Saturdays and for the children staying in the Home during the holidays. Each room should contain 3 to 4 children, and care should be taken that the child can also spend free time there. Every group should have its club for group activities, under the supervision of the instructor. Furthermore, there should be films, musical circles, a library, a newspaper, etc. Work should have an important place in education and should include handwork, agricultural work of all kinds, as well as housework.

Activities keeping the children in touch with the outside world, such as youth movements, sports activities, etc. should be encouraged. The role of the instructor should include individual treatment, general educational activities, etc., while the role of the nurse should be the care of children's health, equipment, and responsibility for hygiene. The instructor should have high-school education as well as teachers' or instructors' training, and at least 3 years' experience with children. The nurse should have completed at least 10 school grades and have experience in child care. The housemother should be responsible for all aspects of housekeeping and should have high-school training in home economics. The supervisor of the Home should also be responsible for schooling, and the appointment of headmaster and teachers should be made by him in co-operation with the Ministry of Education. The headmaster should be a trained teacher and have social and pedagogical understanding. Teachers should take part in staff meetings. Educational plans should be made with the help of the Ministry of Education and adapted to the special character of the Home. The fact that some children need special help with homework should be taken into account.

PRINGLE, M. L. KELLMER and CLIFFORD, L. (1962) 'Conditions associated with emotional maladjustment among children in care', *Educational Review*, **14**, no. 2, 112–23; and in Pringle, M. L. Kellmer, *Deprivation and education*, 1965, Longmans, London, Chapter 5.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A previous study (see p. 158) revealed that prolonged stay in an institution did not necessarily result in emotional difficulty. Early and continued rejection appeared to be more important. This study tested the hypothesis that among the most stable children in residential care, a significantly higher proportion would be found to have frequent and regular contacts with parents or parent-substitutes than among the most maladjusted children.

N.B. This investigation was carried out in an area different from that of the earlier one; the results of the earlier investigation were not known to field workers, nor were the aims of this study divulged to them until the work had been completed.

SAMPLE AND METHOD

1. House Mothers in Local Authority Cottage Homes were asked to complete a questionnaire about the frequency, regularity and nature of children's outside contacts with adults. Cases were limited to children aged 6–12 years who had spent more than one year in care. The sample contained 66 children. Some weeks later House Mothers ranked the same children in order from most to least well-adjusted. House Mothers' judgments were checked by the Superintendent of the Home. Children were sorted into three groups: most stable; not markedly stable, or somewhat maladjusted; and most maladjusted.

2. 25% of the most stable and 25% of the most maladjusted were selected for special study. This gave 34 cases; 21 boys, 13 girls—17 in each group.

Data on children's background was obtained from the Children's Department. Personal and family backgrounds were found to be very similar. Later, House Mothers completed the Bristol Social Adjustment Guides to check subjective judgements. Each child was interviewed individually and was also given the Wechsler Vocabulary Test, the Neale reading test, a drawing test and a personality assessment.

FINDINGS

1. The correlation coefficient between mean scores on the 'visits' questionnaire and maladjustment was 0·28. Thus, there was some association between emotional adjustment on the one hand and regularity and frequency of contact with outside adults on the other hand.

2. The most frequent reason for admission into care: among maladjusted cases, being abandoned or deserted; among stable cases, no outstanding single reason.

3. Social Adjustment Guide results confirmed House Mothers' subjective rankings.

4. Attainments of children: it was found that on the Vocabulary Test approximately half the maladjusted group scored below average; more than two-thirds of the stable group made average or above-average scores.

In reading, the stable group was superior.

CONCLUSIONS

1. The results support the hypothesis that one condition which distinguishes between stable and maladjusted children in care is the regularity and frequency of contact with parents or persons outside the Home, even if the children have never lived with these adults.

2. During clinical interviews three main differences between groups appeared: (*a*) in general attitude to the situation and to the examiner; (*b*) in choice of vocation and ambition; and (*c*) a high proportion of the stable group expressed the wish to be restored to their families.

3. The superior attainments of the stable group supports the view that emotional adjustment and learning are closely connected.

RECOMMENDATION

Public care of children is still very inadequate. More preventive action is needed in the form of early enrichment of experience—emotional, experiential and educational.

BANASIAK, J. F. (1963) 'Anxiety and its relationship to test performance in institutionalised and non-institutionalised children', Ph.D. thesis, Fordham University.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

An investigation of measurable anxiety in children separated from parents at about seven years of age.

SAMPLE

91 children between the ages of 9 and 14 who had come into care for reasons of neglect and family breakdown rather than maladjustment; and a control group of children living with their parents, matched for age, social background, school experience, and geographic location.

METHOD

The following tests were used: Stanford Reading and Arithmetic Tests, Otis Intelligence Test, General Anxiety Scale for Children, Test Anxiety Scale for Children, coding problem of the W.I.S.C. (as a relatively 'anxiety-neutral' learning task), and a specially designed

learning task consisting of numerals and associated pictures judged as having 'anxiety-provoking' potential. All tests were administered to small groups, with the exception of the two learning tasks which were individually administered.

FINDINGS

1. The institution subjects scored significantly lower on the Test Anxiety Scale than controls, and tended towards lower General Anxiety Scale scores.

2. The learning efficiency of institution subjects did not differ from that of controls in the 'anxiety-neutral' learning task, but they performed significantly worse in the 'anxiety-provoking' task.

3. A general tendency towards negative correlations between anxiety scores and measures of achievement and intelligence was observed in both groups, confirming the general trend of Sarason's results.

CONCLUSIONS

The institution children probably expressed less anxiety because of more effective anxiety-reducing defences; at the same time they were evidently less able to cope with additional anxiety stimulation than controls because of having less in the way of defensive reserves.

GAVRIN, JOSEPH B. and SACKS, LENORE S. (1963) 'Growth potential of preschool-aged children in institutional care', *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, **33**, no. 2, 399–408.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A study of change in intellectual level of children in institutional care, recording changes in I.Q. and particulars of child care methods and staffing at Irvington House, Irvington-on-Hudson, New York (the establishment selected for study). The purpose was to test the validity of the current assumption that institutional care is inevitably damaging to young children, irrespective of the quality of the care.

SAMPLE

132 children (nearly all those staying at the Home from 1957–60): 69 boys and 63 girls, aged 2 to 7 when first tested. All children were in short-term care awaiting either foster placement or return to temporarily disrupted families. Mean I.Q. at time of placement: 89.

METHOD

Children were initially tested with the revised Stanford-Binet scale (Form L), a Spanish edition of the test being used for Spanish-speaking children. The second test (using form M) took place about two weeks before discharge, or after nine months if the stay exceeded that time, a third test (using form L) being given two weeks before discharge to those whose stay exceeded nine months. The establishment, originally a research and treatment centre for children with rheumatic fever, had some spare bed-space, and developed a scheme for housing 50 children in four dormitories, each for 12–14 children. The aim was to provide each child with at least one adult who cared for him specially as a human being; to encourage the belief that all the staff had a friendly liking for him; and to provide some privacy and some personal belongings as well as some shared possessions. Each dormitory was associated with separate play accommodation to encourage group consciousness. Staff were mostly young, college-trained and responsive to professional supervision, and sufficiently numerous to give a low caseload. Results were classified to show: (i) mean initial and terminal I.Q. levels, (ii) mean gain in I.Q. in relation to interval between first and last tests, (iii) mean gain in I.Q. in relation to initial I.Q., and (iv) mean change in I.Q. in relation to age when first tested.

FINDINGS

These showed:

1. A mean gain of 8·58 I.Q. points.

2. An almost direct increase in positive I.Q. change with respect to duration of stay.

3. The greatest increment in I.Q. at the two extremes of the initial I.Q. range.

4. No significant relation between magnitude of I.Q. gain and age when first tested.

The authors deduce from this that for most children the establishment tended to provide more stimulation to intellectual development than the homes from which the children came.

RECOMMENDATIONS

As against the current assumption that if institutional placement is inevitable the stay should be as short as possible, the study suggests that 12 to 16 months should elapse before transfer to another setting, unless the child can return to its natural family group. The assumption that a foster home placement is always better than institutional care is, in the authors' view, based on an untested and emotional conviction. They would welcome further research into the progress of a similar group of

children placed in foster homes, and also into how the group discharged from Irvington House compared in later performance with a similar group from other placements. Meanwhile, they regard their findings as indicating that much of the harmful effect of group care reported by other investigators may have been a function of the age of the children when placed and the quality of the institutional service offered, rather than of institutional placement as compared with other forms of placement.

JAFFE, LESTER (1964) 'The role of the social worker in the institution'. Paul Baerwald School of Social Work, Hebrew University of Jerusalem.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

An attempt to determine the role of the social worker in institutions, in response to the growing feeling that social workers should be attached to Children's Homes.

INTRODUCTION

The historical background of the development of child care in Israel is given. It is hypothesised that the social worker should be attached to Children's Homes because of his professional training, detachment, and ability to see the child in his whole setting. His influence begins when he arranges the placement of the child, and his specialised knowledge can then influence for good the child's stay. He is able to advise the other members of the team and create a therapeutic atmosphere. The social worker's role in institutional life includes: taking the child's history, making the placement decision, interviewing parents and child, case-work during the child's stay, maintaining contact with the family, providing for therapy and after-care when necessary, linking residential staff with the child's history and family, contacting teachers and doctors, planning the child's future.

SAMPLE

14 institutions for at least 50 children aged 0–17 years; 4 of them employing a social worker and 10 not.

METHOD

(*a*) Interviews with residential staff, social workers, and child care experts.

(*b*) Questionnaires completed by the same individuals.

It was not possible to compare equal numbers of institutions employing and not employing social workers, as there were so few that did employ them.

FINDINGS

1. About 50% of the Heads of Homes saw no need to employ social workers, but house staff were much more in favour of the idea.

2. The social worker's role (as defined in the Introduction) was not understood or accepted by most respondents.

3. Social workers' responses showed that they were only enabled to carry out part of the tasks defined in the Introduction, and that they considered the defined role to be an ideal rather than a reality.

4. Where no social worker was employed in the Home, most of these tasks were carried out by the Head.

5. In general, most staff in both groups of Homes felt the need for a social worker member, but there were respondents who believed that the Home had a purely educational function.

6. The social worker's role was nowhere clearly defined, his functions were shared with other staff members, and his position was not influential in the atmosphere and the running of Homes.

MAAS, HENRY S. (1963) 'The young adult adjustment of twenty wartime residential nursery children', *Child Welfare*, **42**, no. 2, 57–72.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

To study the effects of maternal deprivation by assessing adults who were known to have been separated from their parents in early childhood due to wartime evacuation.

SAMPLE

12 young men and 8 young women, aged 19–26 at the time of the study, who had all been evacuated to residential nurseries for between one and four years during their early childhood in the Second World War. They came mainly from working-class families, nine of the total from the East End of London. Five had been separated in the first year of life, five at about 2 years, five at about three, and five at between four and five. Four of the twenty spent some later years in other placements, and the rest

grew up at home on returning from the nursery. One subject withdrew after one interview and another ex-evacuee took her place.

METHOD

The author contacted the former heads of three wartime nurseries and was given a list of names by each. Although many families could not be traced, enough were finally contacted to provide four equal-sized groups, with a relatively balanced sex distribution. One subject from a fourth nursery was included to balance the numbers.

The three nurseries had varied in their orientation. Nursery N, medium-sized, was psychologically sophisticated, cared for the children in small groups, was near to London and encouraged parental contact; in Nursery E, set in remote countryside, 20 children were cared for by two untrained adults, and the atmosphere was brisk and confident; Nursery S, the largest, had been a nursery for the children of working mothers and was evacuated as a unit. The staff, trained nursery teachers, were few, and their attitude appeared to be strict and rather possessive.

The author decided against using a control group, since it would have been almost impossible to find children from the same area whose parents had 'believed in' evacuation but not in fact sent the children away.

The subjects were told of the purpose of the study and interviewed formally and informally, and gave T.A.T. responses. Most of them were seen in home surroundings with their families. The parents of nearly all were also interviewed, and records of the nurseries and the Children's Department consulted.

The following five variables were chosen, case-files being submitted for rating to two judges: 'feeling life', 'inner controls', 'relationships with people', 'performance in key social roles', 'intellectual functioning.' Five cases were also sent to another judge for re-rating, and agreement varied between 69% and 90%. T.A.T. responses were rated blind by a specialist in projective testing.

FINDINGS

1. In the areas of work and marriage or engagement the sample appeared to be average for their age.

2. When 'personal relationships' were rated, all groups except the Fours (separated at about four years) were inferior to the average metropolitan population.

3. 'Feeling life' was impaired for the Ones and Threes, compared to the average.

4. 'Role performance' and 'inner controls' ratings showed impairment for the Ones.

5. In general, personal relationships were impaired for all except the Fours, with the Ones coming off worst and the Threes coming off worse than the Twos.

6. Parents of the evacuees had little to say at their interviews, and there appeared to be considerable pathology in many of the families, particularly those who had children evacuated at one year or less (the Ones). Some siblings who had stayed at home were more disturbed than the evacuees. Nine families were known by the Children's Department at the time of evacuation for poverty or delinquency.

7. Nursery S children received better ratings than Nursery E or N.

DISCUSSION

1. Nursery S children may have fared best because they knew each other and their teachers before evacuation.

2. The existence of more repressed adults among the Threes than the Twos may be because three is a more crucial age for separation than two, or because family backgrounds were so poor that earlier removal gave children a better chance.

3. Family backgrounds were especially deviant for the Ones, and there may be inter-related causes for their maladjustment. In spite of the realistic reasons for placement, rejection of these babies may have been involved.

CONCLUSION

The author concludes that, at least from about age 2, separation of the kind experienced by this sample is not a necessary antecedent of serious maladjustment.

RESEARCH DEPARTMENT, CHILD WELFARE OFFICE, JERUSALEM (1963) *Children in long-term institutional care.*

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

Research on children who had been in institutions for over 5 years, in order to find out: (*a*) how the child adjusts to institutional life; (*b*) what are the feelings of the family towards the child; (*c*) what conditions would enable the child to return home.

SAMPLE AND METHOD

45 children who had been in institutions for over 5 years were chosen, for whom it was possible to interview also one of the parents. Question-

naires were circulated between November 1961 and January 1962 and the results were tabulated.

Information was received:

(*a*) Through material gathered by social workers in the Department of Child Care of the Welfare Office in Tel-Aviv.

(*b*) From staff in the institution where children were placed, and through interviews with the children themselves.

(*c*) Through impressions gained by house visits and talks with the parents themselves.

(*d*) Through interviews with the supervisors of the institutions.

FINDINGS

1. About 60% of the parents were quite young, under 45 years; 81% were born in Africa and Asia, and 80% were immigrants, i.e. emigrated after 1948 to Israel.

2. All the children came from broken homes; about 50% of parents were widowers or widows and 25% were divorced. Parents who were not divorced or widowed were either separated because of quarrels or because one of them was hospitalised. During the 5 years the children had spent in institutions, 25% of the parents had married again—a fact which could influence the relationship between the parents and the child.

3. 49% of the families lived either in a cottage or in a one-room flat, while 34% lived in a two-room flat. Most families had about 3 to 9 children. Incomes were relatively low, taking into account the number of children. Few of the families contributed to the cost of institutional placement, and those who did gave only a token sum.

4. About 78% of the children were below school age. The main reason for placement was loss of one parent (50%), separation and illness of the parents, and problems of the child himself.

5. 50% of the children stayed in the institution about 5 to 7 years. 42% stayed from 8 to 10 years, and the rest more than 10 years. One-third of the children were placed for the whole period in the same institution, while two-thirds had been in two or more.

6. About 58% of the children appeared to have adapted themselves to the institution. Among these, about 77% were taking an active part in social life and 81% getting on well at school. Among the children who did not adapt well, more than 50% were difficult at school and 74% were not successful socially. The positive correlation between adaptation to the institution and social success was greater than that between adaptation to the institution and school achievements. While in the age

group 8 to 10, only 29% were well adapted, in the age group of 11 to 16 50% of the children adapted themselves; but regarding achievement in school or social activity there was no difference between the age groups. The percentage of children succeeding in school and socially successful in all age groups was about 45%.

7. The number of children with positive feelings towards their parents (96%) was greater than that of the parents with positive feelings towards their children (82%). There was no direct correlation between the conduct of the parents to their children and the feelings of the children about their families or homes. Parental affection helped the children to adapt successfully (68%); of the children who had indifferent parents none adapted himself to the institution.

8. 64% of the children in all age groups wanted to return home. Only 36% of the parents of the age group 8 to 10 were prepared to accept them home, but in the age group 14 to 16, two-thirds of the parents would accept their children home. It was clear that the preference for older children was because they could help the parents support the family, while younger children need more care, which most of the broken families were not able to give.

STIER, URSULA (1963) *Sozialhygienische Erhebungen an Hamburger Heimkindern* (A social-hygienic study of children in residential care in Hamburg). Bertlesmann Verlag, Bielefeld. 147 pp.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

An examination of the characteristics of a large sample of children in residential care in Hamburg.

SAMPLE

594 children who had lived in institutions since birth. 471 were illegitimate, 123 legitimate. All ages up to 9 years.

METHOD

(*a*) Case records of the Hamburg Youth Department were scrutinised.

(*b*) Three-monthly reports from the Homes on children's physical and mental development were also used.

(*c*) A special medical examination was carried out to compare height and weight with that of the rest of the child population in Hamburg.

FINDINGS

1. *Reasons for placement*

(*a*) The 471 illegitimate children: no home accommodation (24·42%); mothers relinquished the babies at birth (18·47%); mothers abandoned or neglected the children (15·92%); mothers mentally deficient (11·04%); mothers working full-time (11·68%); mothers themselves institutionalised (5·52%); mothers psychotic (2·55%); illness, imprisonment, mothers still at school, etc. (7·85%).

(*b*) The 123 legitimate children: neglect or abuse (39·02%); rejection (18·71%); lack of accommodation (17·07%); one or both parents mentally deficient (9·76%); mother deserted (8·94%); mother mentally ill (4·07%); illness, imprisonment, etc. (2·43%).

2. *Height and weight.* There were no differences from the average.

3. *Motor development.* This was judged to be retarded.

4. '*Eight-months anxiety*' (fear of strangers appearing at about the age of 8 months). 23% of the children studied showed this reaction at the appropriate age, 34% during the second year, and 43% did not show it at all.

5. *Speech development.* 53% of the institutionalised children were judged to be definitely retarded in speech. At three years, 69% could only speak a few words or not at all; at four and five, 58% could not form sentences; at six and seven, 82% still spoke in an infantile way.

6. *Control of excretion.* Nearly half of all children had not achieved complete control.

7. *Maladjustment.* About half the younger children were judged to have one or several neurotic symptoms; the proportion was lower among the older children. Among babies, the commonest symptoms were stereotyped rocking movements, prolonged crying, spitting, apathy, and head-banging; among older children, restless sleep, restlessness, and anxiety symptoms.

8. *Social behaviour.* No quantitative measurements were made, but interviews with social workers, psychologists, and Home staff revealed that the children were characterised by excessive attention-seeking behaviour.

9. *School record.* Of the school-age children, only 3% were able to start school at the usual age; by the age of 8, 5% had still not started school. 22% had to attend a special school.

WALTERS, GWYN (1963) 'A study of deprived children in Family Unit Homes in three county boroughs in South Wales', Diploma thesis, Faculty of Education, University of Swansea.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A study of the intelligence, attainment and emotional adjustment of children living in Family Unit Homes.

SAMPLE

43 boys and 29 girls living in 11 Family Unit Homes in South Wales and attending 36 schools. Age range: 5–15 years.

METHOD

Lists of Homes, children and their histories were supplied by Children's Officers. House-parents and teachers filled in Bristol Social Adjustment Guides for each child. Headmasters supplied the results of intelligence tests (Moray House), and in most cases Reading and Arithmetic Quotients. The 14 children under 7 years were only rated on the Adjustment Guide.

FINDINGS

1. 33·3% had I.Q.s below 80, 58·1% between 90 and 109, and 8·6% between 110 and 119.

2. Reading: 46·8% had a Reading Quotient of below 80 (excluding two Grammar School boys).

3. Arithmetic: 50% had an Arithmetic Quotient of below 80.

4. Adjustment: about 40% of the children were rated 'stable', about 60% 'unsettled' or 'maladjusted'. Depression and lack of confidence were the commonest symptoms. There was considerably more maladjustment and unsettled behaviour among the children under 11, and more among boys than girls.

5. The following factors were correlated with better adjustment: higher I.Q., long stay in the Family Unit Homes (significant at 0·01 level), and contact with family (0·01 level).

RECOMMENDATIONS

Family Group Homes should be considered a fairly good type of substitute care, in view of the fact that children appeared to improve rather than deteriorate during a long stay, and should be combined with nursery school for small children, as well as with the observation and diagnosis of maladjustment. Placement should be made directly if possible, without using residential nurseries or, for older children, Reception Homes. Further research should be done on this type of care.

JAFFE, LESTER D. (1964) 'Institutionalisation of children', Progress report submitted to the International Research Program, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, D.C., and to the Child Welfare Division, Ministry of Social Welfare, Jerusalem.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

An outline of suggested criteria for exploration of alternative placement plans for institutionalised dependent children in Israel, prepared by a panel of professional caseworkers.

FINDINGS

1. *Principles of placement.* Institutional placement for children should be considered only for children in need of a therapeutic experience. This type of placement is for children with emotional disturbances which prevent them from functioning at home or in the community.

Institutions should be seen as treatment settings only and should not be used as solutions to the placement problems of dependent children.

2. *Criteria for exploring the possibility of a child's remaining in the same institution*

(*a*) If the child's emotional needs are being met there.

(*b*) In situations where a healthy child must leave home, but is not in need of treatment in an institution, and in cases where parental needs absolutely preclude a foster home plan.

(*c*) The practice of placing very young children of up to 3 years (unless there is a clear-cut certified need for medical care) is strongly contra-indicated according to all professional research findings.

(*d*) The use of institutional placement to provide normal physical and educational care is considered a misuse.

3. *Criteria for exploring the transfer of a child to another institution*

(*a*) When a different kind of residential treatment is indicated.

(*b*) If there is need for more intensive or less intensive treatment.

4. *Criteria for exploring the return of the child to his parents' home*

(*a*) The availability of the child's own family to take the child home.

(*b*) The child's willingness and capacity to return.

(*c*) The parents' capacity to handle problems which may have arisen as a result of placement, as well as former problems which may have been complicated during the period of separation.

(*d*) A consensus among the parties working with the child and the parents.

5. *Criteria for exploring placement with relatives*

(*a*) The availability of a relative to accept the child in his home, and the parents' and child's willingness to go along with this plan.

(*b*) Capacity of the relatives to care for the child.

(*c*) The existence of a positive relationship between the child's parents and the relatives.

(*d*) Willingness of the relatives to work with the child welfare placing agency.

6. *Criteria for exploring placement in a foster home.* Foster care is generally suitable for younger children.

7. *Criteria for exploring adoptive placement*

(*a*) No age limitation should be placed.

(*b*) The child must be legally available.

(*c*) Suitable adoptive parents must be available.

(*d*) The decision for adoption planning must be deemed as being in the best interests of the child.

(*e*) The medical or psychiatric condition of the child's own parents is not a criteria for categorically ruling out adoption.

(*f*) Children with a terminal illness or with severe retardation or those who show asocial behaviour problems should not be considered for adoption.

(*g*) The child must show capacity to accept adoptive parents.

8. *Criteria for exploring placement in a Kibbutz*

(*a*) The child must be able to function in a group life.

(*b*) Children aged 10 and over are considered most likely to benefit from Kibbutz life.

(*c*) The child must show the capacity for some discipline.

(*d*) Qualities of independence, acceptance of physical work and love of nature would also indicate a potential for Kibbutz living.

(*e*) Willingness of the child's parents to accept this plan.

JACKSON, KATHLEEN M. (1965) *Faceless families and forlorn children.* U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 110 pp.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A study of a sample of families whose children were placed in Junior Village in the District of Columbia in 1962; carried out by the Howard

School of Social Work and financed by the Children's Bureau of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Family circumstances, reasons for placement and possible prevention of placement were studied to explore the hypothesis that poverty was basically responsible for most of the placements.

SAMPLE

One-third of the families whose children were admitted to Junior Village in 1962: 130 families with 453 children, most of whom had been placed in the Village at least once. 9 out of 10 were Negro. More than half were boys, and more than half under 6 years when placed. About 49% were legitimate. Children forcibly removed by court action were excluded.

Junior Village is a large institution for emergency care of dependent children of all ages in the district. Admissions in 1964 exceeded 1,400. Staffing at the time of the study was inadequate. Admissions had increased steadily and greatly in the years before the study (2,500% since 1947) and some of the children stayed in long-term care. Admissions were made only by public agencies, and the Village provided mainly short-term emergency placements.

METHODS

All children admitted in 1962 were listed, and the family of every third child chosen for the sample. Records of the Child Welfare Division, the police, Public Assistance Board, family welfare services, psychiatric clinics, hospitals and school were scrutinised, and all families who could be located were interviewed. All data were recorded and processed.

FINDINGS

1. *Family backgrounds.* 53% of the families were headed by a single parent, 45% by two parents, and 2% of the children had no family at all. 75% of the children had been living with parent or parents before placement, 11% with relatives and 14% with friends, foster parents, etc. Some children had siblings in other forms of care. The majority of parents had lived in the district over 5 years.

2. *The parents*

(*a*) Race: 90% were Negro. There were no Jewish families.

(*b*) Age: median age of fathers was 37, of mothers 32; many parents were 'Depression babies'.

(*c*) Marriage: 'fathers' among the 2-parent families (45% of the sample) were shifting figures, and only half of them were known to contribute to family upkeep.

(*d*) Education: the majority of parents were in unskilled work and had had minimum education.

(*e*) Housing: 72% were inadequately housed and eviction was a common experience.

(*f*) Income: over a quarter were receiving Public Assistance and most families were living below the poverty line.

(*g*) Size of family: average number of children was 5.

(*h*) Health: many parents and children suffered from multiple health problems, often due to undernourishment and poor housing. Alcoholism and drug addiction were common. 28% of the families had had psychiatric attention.

(*i*) Pregnancy: over a third of the mothers had been pregnant before their 18th birthday.

3. *Welfare agencies.* 46% of the families had never received Public Assistance at the time of the study. Many placements were caused by regulations denying Public Assistance. The Welfare Division was forced to place children of all ages in Junior Village because of the lack of foster homes, adoptive homes and treatment centres. Only six families had been helped by the Homemaker Service (home help). 60% had applied to voluntary agencies at some time, but as their basic problem was poverty the agencies had not usually been able to help.

4. *Reasons for placement.* Over half the children were admitted because of the destitution of the persons caring for them, 35% because of parental inadequacy or illness, and 4% because of the child's behaviour. Children placed because of destitution stayed in care longer than the others. About 25% had had more than one admission and half of these were under six. Most admissions lasted less than three months.

5. *Children with special needs.* For disturbed, delinquent or very young children, the Village could not provide an adequate environment and auxiliary services were usually not available. Case histories are given of distressed younger children with multiple placements. Maladjusted children were transferred to an institution for delinquents.

6. At the end of the study 15 out of the 82 families interviewed were estimated to be giving their children satisfactory care, 36 fair care, 14 poor care, and 17 families were not living together.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. A welfare agency accessible to this multi-problem group of families, aware of their difficulties and open after office hours, should be set up to avert family disintegration.

2. Public Assistance regulations must be altered, and grants increased so that more families may benefit enough to keep their children with them.

3. Fostering payments must be increased so that young children do not need to enter the institution.

4. 'Homemaker' services and day nurseries must be provided in greater numbers.

RECHERCHE SOCIALE C.A.F. (1965) *Les placements dans les Maisons d'Enfants des Caisses d'Allocations Familiales* (Placements in children's Homes run by the Union Nationale des Caisses d'Allocations Familiales), Volume 1. 195 pp.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A study of placed children, their families, and Children's Homes in France, carried out between 1961 and 1964 by a team of psychologists, sociologists and social workers. (Part of this study is described in *La vie des enfants in collectivité. Étude de psychologie clinique*, by Avner Ziv. See p. 185.) The Union Nationale des Caisses d'Allocations Familiales, who care for about one-tenth of placed children in France, wished to examine their own policies in order to plan for the future.

Their intake consists of 'social cases', i.e. children in care because of family breakdown, parental delinquency, etc. The enquiry is divided into three parts: a study of the Homes, a study of the families of placed children, and a study of the children themselves.

SAMPLE

(*a*) All 29 Homes run by the U.N.C.A.F. throughout France.

(*b*) All families of children in these Homes between 1 May 1962, and 30 April 1963—in all, 2,429 families.

METHOD

(*a*) *Study of homes.* Questionnaires comprising 110 questions, some open-ended, were completed by the Directors of the 29 Homes, assisted by workers from U.N.C.A.F.

(*b*) *Study of families.* Structured questionnaires on all the sample families were filled in by the 800 social workers who had worked with them. The purpose of the research was explained in accompanying literature.

Answers to questions are described and tabulated. In some cases results are compared with information from the 1962 census and from

a study of large families published in France. The research was discussed throughout with staff of Homes.

FINDINGS

A. Study of Homes

1. *Characteristics of Children's Homes*

(*a*) Age limits varied between three months old to 14 years. Theoretically, only one Home envisaged more than a year's stay, but in fact many Homes over-stepped the time limit and some children had been in care for over 5 years. Nine Homes concentrated on short-stay placements. 23 Homes were mixed, 5 for boys only, and 1 for girls only.

(*b*) History and location: four Homes were built before 1946; 19 between 1946 and 1953, and six since 1953. The majority were large houses in the country, often isolated.

(*c*) Administration: Directors were supervised in all areas by officials of U.N.C.A.F., who were themselves responsible to their administrative council of U.N.C.A.F. Some de-centralisation of control is recommended. Daily cost per child varied from 10 to 28 francs, according to the age of the child, and parents normally paid part of this.

2. *Placement procedure*

(*a*) Reasons for admission were complex, but all resulted from family failure of some kind. A majority of placement decisions were taken by the U.N.C.A.F. official and termination of placement was also seldom decided by Directors.

(*b*) Communication problems: Directors were seldom in contact with children's families, and less than half had had contact with the referring social worker. Social workers themselves seldom saw children during their stay. Better communication between workers is recommended.

3. *Organisation of the child's stay*

(*a*) Routine: in three-quarters of the Homes, children slept in dormitories holding up to 40 children; they seldom had separate cubicles. A majority of Homes allowed access to dormitory and possessions. Of 25 Homes taking school-age children, 19 had their own schools. Classes contained about 20 children, who worked an average of six hours a day, in addition to homework. Most Homes provided workshops with facilities for painting, modelling, photography, etc.; three-quarters also provided excursions, acted plays, etc. 14 of the 29 Homes had sports grounds.

(*b*) Outside contacts: most Homes did not offer or accept invitations from children outside the Homes, and the children may have been too sheltered from these contacts. During school holidays, 81% went home to parents or other families.

(*c*) Medical and psychological supervision: most Homes provided medical examination on arrival and at intervals thereafter; 3 of them quarantined all children on admission. Only 4 Homes had psychologists attached to the staff, although some children were sent for assessment elsewhere. More thorough diagnostic planning is recommended.

(*d*) Family contacts during placement: in most Homes the majority of children had parental visits, and in 4 all children had been visited. 22 Homes had rules about visiting days. Parents frequently had interviews with Directors and house staff. Writing home was compulsory in most Homes. For small children, staff members sent news once a week. In 18 of the 29 Homes, letters were opened and read before being given to the children.

4. *Staff of Homes*

(*a*) Directors: 9 had medico-social training, 9 pedagogical training, 8 training in 'Colonies de Vacances' (see p. 58), and 9 did not reply to the question. Their role was to organise and administer rather than make policy decisions. Only a small part of their time was spent with children. 19 were women, 10 were men.

(*b*) Assistants: in 19 Homes the Director was assisted by a financial secretary, Head of house staff, or assistant Director. The latter two posts were all held by women.

(*c*) House staff: staff ratio varied from one 'moniteur' or 'monitrice' to 10 children, to one to 18 children. There were 202 women in these posts to 8 men. 62% were aged 25 or under, and they were not well paid. The author comments that the level of training was inadequate (although 79% had some kind of diploma relevant to working with children). In 26 of the Homes, all staff members had a private room. In 11 Homes, staff always ate with the children, in 9 Homes they ate separately, and in 9 the arrangements varied. Arrangements for leisure time were generally limited to the library, records and sports available on the premises. 39% of staff had been in the Home for 3 or more years, another 35% between 1 and 3 years, and the remaining 26% less than a year.

(*d*) Other staff: The 29 Homes altogether employed 262 'service' personnel (cooks, cleaners, etc.).

B. Study of the children's families

1. *Socio-economic background*

(*a*) Children came mainly from urban homes. In three-quarters of them, parents were living together; 14·6% consisted of the mother alone; one parent was dead in 7·1% of cases; 80% of families were French and had always lived in France. Health: in only 20% of families were

mother and father both in good health. Families were larger than average; 43% of siblings of placed children were under six years.

(*b*) Occupational status: most families came from unskilled working class; in 13·5% the bread-winner was unemployed because of discharge or illness; incomes were low.

(*c*) Housing was generally poor and over-crowded.

2. *The children in placement*

About half were under 7 years old. 87% were judged to be in good health. 81% were average in school attainment; 19% retarded. The majority of placements were foreseen as lasting less than three months by social workers, but in fact at the time of the study 21% had been in care for over a year. One-quarter of the children's families lived more than three hours' travelling distance away.

3. *Families' problems*

(*a*) Cause of placement: 11·9% were placed because of mother's confinement; 3·6% because of the children's own problems; the rest were placed because of family problems—health, employment, etc.

(*b*) Nature of family problems: half the families had more than one problem. 80% were in poor health; fatigue and nervous tension were common in mothers of large families; 28·6% had a serious housing problem; nearly one-quarter of children were placed because of parental inadequacy—cruelty, neglect, desertion, etc. 18% of the families had employment problems, and 15% of the children were judged to have problems of adjustment or school attainment.

4. *The placement decision*

(*a*) More than half the families were already known to the social services before the placement decision, and 38% were receiving some welfare assistance.

(*b*) The responsibility for suggesting placement was about equally divided between parents and social workers. Placement was suggested by a doctor in 10% of cases.

(*c*) Previous use of placement: half the sample were being placed for the first time. 30% of the families had other children in care.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Most families had multiple problems and were being helped by the social services in several ways, but more action could have been taken to help them. Placement of their children was helpful, but not a solution to their problems; combined social action is needed to help families who are burdened with poor health, low incomes and large families.

RECHERCHE SOCIALE C.A.F. (1965) *Les placements dans les Maisons d'Enfants des Caisses d'Allocations Familiales* (Placements in Children's Homes run by the Union Nationale des Caisses d'Allocations Familiales), Volume 2. 139 pp.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

Second part of an enquiry on 29 Children's Homes in France, run by the Union Nationale des Caisses d'Allocations Familiales. (See also p. 179.)

SAMPLE

58 children selected from three of the 29 Homes, and their parents.

METHOD

A. Children

(*a*) The Children's Homes were placed in three groups according to size and specialisation, and a typical Home of each type was chosen for study. Children staying for at least one school year in the Home were then selected for intensive study.

(*b*) The authors of the study spent three days a week in Homes for two years, sharing meals, etc. with the children. They carried out observations: general observations, time-samples, observation of specially engineered situations, and indirect observations reported by staff.

(*c*) All children were given unstructured interviews and asked about their feelings about placement and their future plans. Doll play techniques were used.

(*d*) Two intelligence tests and six projective tests were administered. Not all children were given all tests.

B. Families

Families of the children were given unstructured interviews. Social workers dealing with placement were also interviewed for their impressions of the families.

FINDINGS

1. *Reasons for placement.* Characteristics of parents: 75% of couples were married and lived together. One was an unmarried mother and 7 were divorced or widowed. Most of the husbands were working-class and in work, but most of the single women had work trouble. One-quarter of the housewives were not very capable. Out of 41 homes, 33 had parental health problems, 25 money problems, 22 family disagreements, 17 housing problems, 9 work problems. 14 had 4 or more of these problems,

and 93% altogether had *some* serious problem. Placements could be divided into 3 groups: (*a*) 11 were short-term emergency placements (new baby, illness, etc.); (*b*) 22 cases had similar acute causes, but multiple problems in the background; and (*c*) the rest (25 long-term placements) had serious illness and social problems, often with rejection of the child.

2. *Placement decisions.* Actual decisions were hard to disentangle; parents' and social workers' stories differed, each blaming the other. Parents seemed helpless and guilty, and social workers overworked. Families were often known to social services for years before placement, during which time workers changed, so the family was sometimes known only at second hand.

Parents usually prepared the child for placement, representing it as good for them. Some were punitive. Parents usually showed blind confidence in the 'Maisons'. Liaison between parents, social workers and 'Maisons' was inadequate; when the Director did meet parents on placement, this made a good foundation for later visiting.

3. *Arrival at the Home.* In two Homes the children were received in groups without much explanation or introduction; in the other Home there was a more individual welcome. The staff (excluding the Director) were not told of the child's previous history.

At one Home the children appeared more talkative, but were more anxious at night, and there was more enuresis; at the other, the children were quieter but there was much less enuresis. It was noted that children who were reserved on arrival settled better than those who were talkative and apparently at ease.

4. *Child's adjustment*

(*a*) Confidence: the majority of children seemed fairly at ease and talked freely.

(*b*) Relations with adults: children's relations with staff reflected attitudes to parents. Some who avoided staff sought out the researchers.

(*c*) Participation in group activities: the better adjusted participated more in these activities.

(*d*) Symptoms of maladjustment: at one of the Children's Homes, 43% were considered well adjusted; at the next, 25%; at the third, 60% (only 10 children).

5. *Children's view of placement*

(*a*) Reasons for placement: in two Homes (taking shorter-term cases), illness and pregnancy were often mentioned, which was quite realistic. At the third Home, reasons like bad behaviour were given. When asked whether they would send their own children, the answers were often 'No', or 'Yes, if they were naughty'.

(*b*) Length of placement: those feeling they had been placed because of 'badness' saw placement as longer or more uncertain than the others, and more of them claimed to prefer placement to home.

6. *Daily life*

(*a*) Routine: in the long-stay Home, the children were rather cut off from the community. Sports, etc. were run by female staff, and so sometimes not suited to boys. One Home successfully ran a 'co-operative' —rabbits, hens and eggs were sold, profits being used for excursions.

(*b*) Staff: the Homes were mainly staffed by young women 'monitrices', mostly untrained. Individual relationships with children were not encouraged, but should have been, in the author's opinion.

(*c*) Family relationships: these had considerable influence on the child whilst in placement through letters, visits, etc. Siblings played together at first, but not after they had got used to the Home.

(*d*) Children's comments: they wanted male staff, more sport, TV and cinema. Of 23 at one Home, 30% said they would like to return to the Home; 60% that they would not; 10% gave no answer.

DISCUSSION

1. Where short-term placements for emergencies were concerned, both parents and child (usually in poor living conditions) seemed to have benefited.

2. In more complex situations and longer placements, placement was less helpful, because physical and social problems were untreated. Placement was only a temporary measure, and basic problems remained untouched. Children in this group were more confused and lonely than in the previous group.

3. Very long-term placements usually meant rejection of the child because of maladjustment or delinquency. Families were relieved; for children, the benefits were not so clear. More security and personal attention should have been provided for this group.

In general, a genuine but limited service was provided for some of the children in the study and their families. The main deficiency was lack of understanding of the children's psychological problems.

ZIV, AVNER (1965) *La vie des enfants en collectivité. Étude de psychologie clinique* (Life in a children's community. A clinical study). Etudes C.A.F. (Union Nationale des Caisses d'Allocations Familiales), Paris. 282 pp.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A qualitative, exploratory psychological study of boys in a Children's Home in France and their families. The psychological study was part of a larger study (see pp.179-185) of families whose children were placed, set up by the Union Nationale des Caisses d'Allocations Familiales and carried out between 1961 and 1964 by a team of six—(sociologists, psychiatrist, psychologist and social worker).

SAMPLE

23 boys from one institution, run by the Bureau of Family Allowances, all of school age. All had been placed in the Home for at least a year and were taught within the Home. All were placed because of social problems in their backgrounds—broken homes, parents ill or neglectful, illegitimacy, etc. Most placements were made with parents' permission, and commenced at the beginning of the school year.

METHOD

The Homes run by the Bureau of Family Allowances are described, and in particular the one chosen for study. Three methods of study were used:

1. *Observation*

(*a*) Observation of everyday life: children were continuously observed during the year's study, and behaviour noted in detail. Time-sampling techniques were also used.

(*b*) Observation of reactions to specially engineered situations: games, etc., were organised and reactions noted.

(*c*) Indirect observation: institutional staff also made observations and discussed them with research workers.

2. *Interviews.* The children were asked about reasons for their placement, and future plans.

3. *Tests*

(*a*) Intelligence tests: All boys were tested on the W.I.S.C. and Matrix 38.

(*b*) Projective tests: Carl Rogers' 'Personal Adjustment' test, the 'Make-a-Picture-Story' test, the 'Draw-a-Man' test, the C.A.T. and the Rosenzweig frustration test were administered.

(*c*) Sociometric tests: these were administered and sociograms constructed.

Findings are described in detail, but not quantified. A case history of each child is given.

FINDINGS

1. *Children's adjustment*

(*a*) Ease: children who felt at ease were able to criticise the institution. Many would not make any comments in front of staff. Eight boys responded to frustration adequately, 15 by crying or fighting. Nine of the 23 were even-tempered. In general, only four boys could possibly be considered to be 'at ease'.

(*b*) Relations with other children: sociograms showed that about half the boys were well adjusted to the group.

(*c*) Relations with adults: nine boys appeared to be well adjusted in this respect.

2. *Children's adjustment as assessed by staff.* Agreement among staff on criteria of good and poor adjustment was only 46%.

3. *Exploratory behaviour.* When observed on arrival in the Home, the boys fell into two groups: some were talkative and apparently at ease, others quiet but observant. The second group had a higher mean I.Q. and appeared to settle better.

4. *Placement data*

(*a*) Reasons for placement: rejection by the family, officially the cause of 17% of placements, was found to be present in at least 52%. Reasons were always complex. Only two children were placed by a Court.

(*b*) Children's views of their placement: ten boys saw their placement as punishment; seven of these were considered poorly adjusted. The majority of the sample said they preferred to be at home.

5. *Daily life in the Home*

(*a*) Arrival: children were not shown round or given explanations. They did not show signs of being very upset on arrival.

(*b*) Timetable: school work had a major place, hobbies second, sport was not given much prominence.

(*c*) Staff: the Director was a man, the 'monitrices' untrained girls who suffered from the isolation and monotony of the work.

(*d*) Children's criticisms: most complained of lack of freedom. They wanted more sport, male teachers, bedrooms instead of dormitories.

6. *Family relationships.* In 7 of the 19 families, the mother was alone. Only three couples appeared to be happily married. Children who never spoke of their parents showed signs of repressed hostility in projective tests.

7. *Children's development during placement*

(*a*) Self-image: 11 boys felt inferior and continued to during their stay. A consultant psychologist might have been helpful.

(*b*) Sociability: of 13 boys who showed signs of poor social adaptation, six improved.

(*c*) Family relationships: a majority of children were affected by parents' quarrels, uncertainty, etc.

(*d*) School progress: progress was generally good. Boys who did not improve needed special teaching.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Help should be given to families in difficulties to prevent placement of children if possible, particularly younger ones.

2. Both children and families should have maximum preparation and explanation when placement is necessary.

3. Staff of Homes should have full information about children's backgrounds.

4. Letters and visits from parents should be encouraged.

5. Psychological consultants should be available for all Homes.

6. Training and experience of girls acting as 'monitrices' (young house mothers) should be reconsidered. At the moment young, untrained and inexperienced girls are doing the job. Staff should have the chance to lead a less sheltered life.

7. Staff should be trained to understand children and allow them to communicate their feelings so that they have a chance to make therapeutic relationships with adults.

8. The Children's Home should be brought into closer contact with the outside world.

4. Child care workers

Abstracts are listed in chronological order

UNITED NATIONS (1957) 'European seminar on training of personnel for children's institutions'

CLEMENT BROWN, S. (1958) 'The training of houseparents for work in Children's Homes'.

TOLLEN, W. B. (1960) 'Study of staff losses in child welfare and family service agencies'.

BURNS, T. and SINCLAIR, S. (1963) 'The child care service at work'

MONSKY, S. (1963) 'Staffing of local authority residential homes for children'

JEFFERYS, M. (1965) 'An anatomy of social welfare services'

KRAAK, B. (1965) 'Die Gruppenzieherin im Heim' (Women staff in Children's Homes)

HERAUD, B. J. (1966) 'Students in institutions. A survey'

WILLIAMS COMMITTEE (1967) 'Caring for people: staffing residential homes. The report of the Committee of Enquiry set up by the National Council of Social Service'

UNITED NATIONS (1957) *European seminar on training of personnel for children's institutions, Baarn (Hilversum), Netherlands*, 1956. 195 pp.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

Account of an international seminar organised by the United Nations. There were 45 participants from 13 countries. The programme included: recruitment, training for residential work, advanced training and the role of the residential worker. A summary of discussions is included, and 12 lectures.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. *Preliminary considerations affecting training*

(*a*) Job analysis should be made of the functions of different workers in residential care, in order to plan training effectively.

(*b*) The coexistence of trained and untrained staff calls for particular attention. Senior untrained staff should be invited to help in the planning of training courses.

(*c*) Grants should be made to experienced staff to enable them to undergo training.

(*d*) Senior staff must be allowed enough time to train their students.

(*e*) To facilitate recruitment, the status and conditions of residential work should be considered in relation to such professions as teaching and social work.

2. *Training*

(*a*) Teaching staff should be appointed who can also help students as individuals. The teachers should be enabled to plan courses together, and to keep up with new knowledge.

(*b*) Candidates should be carefully selected. Preliminary experience is considered desirable, and interviews should supplement written evidence of suitability.

(*c*) Job analysis would facilitate the designing of courses at varying levels, planned together as one whole.

(*d*) The training should be planned in relation to that of similar occupations, so that transfers between different branches of child welfare work could be arranged after some additional training.

(*e*) The content should be seen as a whole and carefully balanced, with study and practical work closely related.

(*f*) Modern educational aids, such as films, demonstrations and visits, should be used and the content of each subject related to residential work.

(*g*) The use of residential or non-residential courses depends upon conditions in the different countries.

(*h*) Qualification should be clearly recognised as authentic and granted on assessment of practical as well as written work.

(*i*) Children's Homes used for training should be those which can be most helpful and which have high standards.

(*j*) Supervision should be given by tutors and residential staff in co-operation; temporarily, tutors may have to take the greater share.

3. *Further action*

(*a*) Newly-appointed staff need individual guidance during the crucial early stage of their work.

(*b*) In-service and refresher courses, and staff and case conferences are useful in stimulating interest and responsibility.

(*c*) The community should be made more conscious of the work done in Children's Homes.

(*d*) Those taking part in training should be constantly aware of new developments and willing to review their methods of work.

CLEMENT BROWN, S. (1958) *The training of houseparents for work in Children's Homes.* Unpublished thesis, Nuffield College, Oxford.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

An exploratory and descriptive study of the selection, training and later career of residential child care staff, carried out between 1954 and 1955.

SAMPLE

From 207 men and women who had been accepted by the Central Training Council for a 14-month course and had had at least 2 years' employment afterwards, 156 were left after every third single woman was eliminated from an alphabetical list. No single men or married couples were eliminated, as their numbers were much fewer. Of the 156, 147 persons (96.5%) were traced, and these formed the final study sample. 99 were single women (at the time of training), 26 single men (at the time of training), and 22 were married (11 couples). They were trained in 7 different centres. About one-fifth did not complete the course, and about one-tenth were found unsuitable after the trial working period. Age and previous employment varied widely.

METHOD

Subjects were interviewed away from the Homes where they worked, and then senior staff members or Home Office inspectors acquainted with their work were interviewed. Tutors from most of the courses were also seen, and Home Office records of selection and training consulted. When all the data had been gathered, the author and another worker independently grouped subjects into 3 main categories according to the quality of their work. Experiences during selection, training, and subsequent employment are described and discussed in relation to subjects' assignment to categories I, II or III. Case material and tables

are included. Information or interview material was not obtained for every subject under each aspect.

A 22-page outline of residential child care training in the Netherlands is appended.

FINDINGS

1. *Occupation and careers since training*

(*a*) Of the whole number admitted to training, 34 remained unqualified. The proportion of single men who did not qualify was larger than either of the other two groups. 8 of the 34 not qualifying were still in work with children.

(*b*) 64·1% of those who qualified were still in residential work with children at the time of study; 49% were actually in Children's Homes. 8% were in work unconnected with children, 9·8% out of employment because of marriage. The occupation of the rest was unknown. More married couples were still in Children's Homes than single men or women.

(*c*) Qualified staff tended to be employed in the south, near large towns. Over three-quarters who were in Children's Homes were in larger Homes, and most were in fairly responsible positions.

(*d*) About half had been in only one position since qualifying. Trained staff had spent a slightly longer time on average in one job than untrained. Single men had changed jobs most frequently, married couples least frequently.

(*e*) 37·3% of the qualified were rated Group I (good) for their work, 49% Group II, and 13·7% Group III. Married couples received the highest proportion of Group I ratings.

2. *Selection and assessment*

(*a*) About half the sample had little criticism to offer of the way they were interviewed before starting the course; about one-fifth were extremely critical.

(*b*) About 80% of those who qualified and entered employment proved to be at least as good as the Selection Committee expected them to be. The number of those who disappointed expectations was about the same as those who surpassed it. The disparity between expectations formed by supervisors during training, and later work record, was greater: 17% performed better and 24% worse than expected. Single men were most overestimated.

(*c*) There was a slight, but not strong, association between a higher level of education and success in work. Poor health was associated with a poor work record; and membership of a large family with a good record. Age and previous employment did not affect work record.

(*d*) The decision to refuse qualification appeared to have been wise in most cases, but most subjects who were interviewed (only 12) reported that the decision had been humiliating.

3. *Single women:* a larger proportion of Groups I and III than of Group II had left the work. The main reasons appeared to be the narrowness of the life, lack of emotional satisfaction, or physical exhaustion. The need for regular free time and good accommodation was frequently mentioned. Several subjects moved to schools for the handicapped, where they had better salaries, free time and accommodation.

4. *Married couples:* married couples of good ability appeared able to look after their own children satisfactorily, but allowance should be made for extra strain on the wife. Leaving the job was often linked with the wish for more status and recognition. Among those who did not leave, few seemed to be extending their education or widening their interests.

5. *Single men:* nearly a third did not complete the training. A proportion of the sample seemed to have special personality difficulties. Those highly rated generally had good intelligence and a deep sense of vocation. Staff relationships were the reason most frequently given for leaving. Several found the conditions in Approved Schools or schools for the handicapped more rewarding.

6. *Views of past students about training*

(*a*) 48% thought highly of it, 19% were very critical, and the other 33% expressed quite a favourable view. More Group I subjects were very approving than the other two Groups. Some found the teaching too easy, some too hard, but the commonest criticism was that classroom teaching was not closely enough related to the actual work.

(*b*) Practical training: the nature of the relationships between the adults in the Home was the most important factor; when the records of single women were considered, 42% mentioned staff being helpful, 38% that they were hostile, or unsympathetic to children. Group I were more critical of their experiences during this time than Group II. Of the Homes used, 8% were later criticized as shocking by students whose judgment was considered to be reliable.

(*c*) Subjects taught in the courses: 'Child Study' was found valuable by about two-thirds of the subjects. The most frequent comment was that it was not practical enough. 'Health' was a subject particularly appreciated. Opinions varied about 'Recreation'; in general the simpler activities such as games and outdoor activities were considered more useful than advanced crafts. 'Domestic subjects' were considered sometimes too elaborate and divorced from practical realities. Only about 40% felt they had gained anything from 'Social Services', and a

number had forgotten the course altogether. 'Religious Upbringing' was the most widely criticized subject.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Although the lack of a control group made comparisons with untrained staff impossible, the majority of the sample studied appeared to have benefited by their training and felt it was worthwhile.

2. Although training appears to have attracted a number of candidates of good quality, their interests seemed limited to the care of children in their immediate charge and few would be able to train their successors.

3. Training appears to have made staff a little less inclined to change posts, but the problem of staff turnover remains a very serious one.

4. Family group homes may demand different qualities from those needed by staff in large establishments.

5. Married couples appear to be the best investment in terms of stability and quality of their work, but need special help if they are to be able to bring up their own families satisfactorily.

6. Single women may often have to be content with posts as Assistants, which may make it hard for them to stay in one post. The early years of employment are crucial; sympathetic discussions, meetings and social occasions make junior staff feel valued.

7. Single men may not be satisfied with the work for long without prospects of promotion. The demand for them may not be as great as for women in this field. It is recommended that the age for their admission be raised to 24, so that admission should be more selective and the few for whom there are good prospects should be outstanding.

8. Staff relationships appear to be all-important. Two sources of dissatisfaction are the low status of assistants, and hostility between trained and untrained workers. The latter might be eased by having someone from headquarters easily available for consultation.

9. Mistakes in selection might be minimized by stipulating that candidates should have some previous residential experience, by asking for a written description of their interests in the work, and by more careful scrutiny of references and employment record.

10. Assistant tutors with experience in residential care would enable students to have more personal attention, discussions, visits, etc.

11. An advanced course might be set up for students with a grammar school education who have already completed the initial course and have had relevant experience.

12. Practical work should be divided into three periods during the year's training, and closely linked with class work. Homes should be

carefully chosen for their suitability, and their staff be kept in touch with the planning and purpose of training courses.

13. 'Child Study' should be taught with more emphasis on older children and more opportunities for discussion. 'Social Studies' should be taught in a more practical, less academic way. 'Recreation' should concentrate on simple skills, and men should be offered different teaching from women. 'Domestic Subjects' needs to be integrated more closely with practical work. The teaching of 'Religious Subjects' needs re-thinking.

14. When students are not allowed to finish the course, the decision should be explained to them fully in individual interviews. Practical work reports, which were often felt by students to be biased, might be more frankly discussed and investigated. While a written examination at the end of the course is not recommended, a brief piece of writing might be submitted to help with the final assessment.

The above points are embodied in 35 specific recommendations.

TOLLEN, WILLIAM B. (1960) *Study of staff losses in child welfare and family service agencies*. U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Social Service Division; Children's Bureau. 193 pp.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A study of the turnover of staff in social agencies: whether it is excessive by comparison with other fields; the reasons for resignations; whether resignees went to other agencies, other fields, or out of social work; how far agencies knew the reasons for leaving; and if resignation is excessive, how and by whom can it be controlled.

SAMPLE

Full-time social workers on duty at the beginning of the study year (2 January 1957, for family service agencies; 1 May 1957 for child welfare agencies) in State and local public child welfare agencies which participated in the Child Welfare grant-in-aid programme for the fiscal year 1958; in 229 of the 230 voluntary casework service agencies which were members of the Child Welfare League of America on 30 April 1957; and in the 256 voluntary agencies that were members of the Family Service Association during 1957. This sample (9,434 social workers and 314 specialists) represented about one-quarter of all U.S. social workers employed full-time in casework service agencies other than public assistance, and about two-thirds of the social workers in

the three chosen fields of public child welfare agencies, voluntary child welfare agencies and voluntary family service agencies.

METHOD

Each agency reported the number of full-time professional workers on duty at the beginning of the study year, classified by sex, position, year of birth, marital status, education, length of service with the reporting agency, white or non-white, and (for females) age of youngest child. After the end of the study year, resignation rates were to be computed for each category, based on the number on duty at the beginning of the year and the number who resigned during the year.

During the year the agency reported each resignation as soon as it occurred, giving name and address, position, length of employment, salary, nature of new employment, name and address of new employer, and effective date of resignation. Previous experience before employment in the agency, marital status and education at time of resignation, and (for females) age of youngest child were also given—by the agency in the two child welfare fields, by the resignee in the family service field.

Agencies also reported which of 19 listed reasons (or other reasons not listed) in the opinion of the immediate supervisor contributed to the resignation; indicated which one or two of these reasons they thought the most compelling; and were asked what reasonable measures (by the agency, the resignee or others) might have prevented it. On receipt of each agency report of resignation, each resignee was asked to give his story of the resignation, with the same list of reasons, and to say whether re-employed; type of work and salary; if outside social work whether return to social work was intended or possible; and if so what field of social work was preferred. Both agencies and resignees were given assurances of confidentiality.

All the foregoing information was returnable to, and processed by, the Children's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare.

FINDINGS

1. Of the average number of regular employees during the year, 24% were no longer employed at the end of the year. For caseworkers alone, the figure is 34%. Of the full-time professional staff on duty at the beginning of the year, the turnover rate was 22% for total professional staff, 27% for caseworkers.

2. The agencies were largely staffed by employees who are 'turnover prone'. Nearly 5 out of every 6 were women, of whom one-quarter were under 31 years old (of caseworkers, one-third). Of women, 45% were single, of men 18%, and of the married women many were of childbearing age.

3. Of all employees on duty at the beginning of the study year, (*a*) one-fifth had less than one year's service with the agency (of caseworkers, one-quarter) and one-third had less than two years' (of caseworkers, two-fifths); (*b*) 22% left their own agency, 19% left the child welfare and family service fields, and 12% left social work altogether.

4. Of those who resigned, 56% were re-employed when they reported, 46% in social work and 10% elsewhere. Of those re-employed, nearly three-quarters were re-employed outside the field from which they resigned. Of resignees *not* re-employed in social work, (*a*) more than one-quarter reported not intending to return to the field they had left, more than half were uncertain or failed to report, and only 10% to 15% expressed intention to return to that field; (*b*) 29% reported intending to return to some kind of social work, more than half were uncertain or failed to report, and one-fifth reported not intending to return.

5. Of fully-trained staff, 72% were re-employed; of partly trained, 48%; and of untrained, 39%. Of the re-employed resignees 82% were re-employed in social work (of fully trained 97%, of partly trained 77%, and of untrained 48%).

6. Of those on duty at the beginning of the study year who left *for any reason* during that year, 77% resigned (17% of the total staff on duty). Men (20%) resigned at a slightly higher rate than women (17%). The most compelling reasons for men were the status, prestige, higher salaries or greater professional opportunities offered by better jobs, and following these, the search for further professional education. These together account for nearly three-quarters of the reasons offered by men. For women, marriage, maternity, moving, or the demands of home were the most compelling for half those who gave reasons; better job or salary, chance of advancement, or search for professional education for another one-quarter; for the rest, various reasons of which dissatisfaction with the supervision received was the commonest.

DISCUSSION

Recruitment of more men, as advocated by some, is no cure for high turnover rate, since their rate of resignation exceeds that of women. The only way out is to change some of the conditions affecting social work practice. Losses by marriage, maternity, etc., cannot be avoided, but agencies could do much to retain other employees. Questions needing re-examination are:

By the agencies:

(*a*) Greater exploitation of the employment of part-time professional staff, including retention part-time of those unable to continue full-time.

(*b*) Greater use of older women full-time.

(*c*) Staff participation in framing of programme policies.

(*d*) Greater cash inducements to skilled caseworkers, even if (like skilled medical staff) their remuneration exceeds that of administrative staff who supervise them.

(*e*) Greater appreciation of the contribution that can be made by partly trained and untrained staff.

By the community:

(*a*) Greater realisation of the indispensability of social work, and of the impossibility of securing the high skills required at wages a semi-skilled industrial worker would scorn.

(*b*) Recognition that the starving of social work is penny wise, pound foolish.

By the social work profession:

Consideration of how best, with expert scientific help and skilled publicity, to educate the public in a greater awareness of the need for social work and a greater esteem for its function.

BURNS, T. and SINCLAIR, S. (1963) *The Child Care Service at work.* Report prepared for the Scottish Advisory Council on Child Care. H.M.S.O. 43 pp.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A study of the working time of all members of the Children's Departments in seven Scottish Local Authorities.

SAMPLE

Time sheets compiled by seven Children's Officers, 10 Child Care Officers, 12 secretaries and four accounts clerks. The Local Authorities concerned covered both town and country areas.

METHOD

All workers were issued with time sheets listing various alternative activities. The relevant activity was ticked and a new sheet used for each job. Workers used about 35 sheets a day for a month, posting them off each day. They were also asked at the end to guess how their time had been distributed.

The period of the study was a fairly representative one for all Departments, but variations in procedure affected the allocation of time within them.

FINDING

1. The average working week of Children's Officers was 45 hours; of Child Care Officers, 43½ hours; and of secretarial staff 36 hours. Staff (other than secretarial) often had to work at evenings and weekends.

2. Place of work: Children's Officers and Child Care Officers divided their time, on average, as follows: 48% spent in the office; 24% travelling; 14% visiting Homes, foster homes; 1% working at home; 7% waiting; 5% in other offices; 0·4% in Court.

Their estimated time spent in travelling was much lower than in reality. Proportions were roughly similar in all Departments.

3. Clerical workers spent most of their time in their offices, but in the smaller Local Authorities they spent some time in Children's Homes and foster homes.

4. The professional workers divided their time among the following duties: 48% supervision of children in care; 13% supplementary duties; 26% administration; 10% preventive work; 4% personal matters.

There were considerable variations between Departments; the larger the Department, the more time spent in administration. The biggest variation was in preventive work.

5. Time spent in adoption duties varied from 2% to 24%, depending partly on the existence of an adoption society in the area.

6. Division of labour was sometimes according to geographical area, sometimes according to workers' preferences.

7. Nearly all professional staff seriously under-estimated the time spent in office work and over-estimated time spent on their other activities, particularly preventive work. In general, they had a very unrealistic picture of their working life.

8. Recorded communications took up about half the professional workers' time; the largest single item was conversation with other members of the same Department, which increased with the size of the Department. Little time was spent with the Children's Committee. More detailed figures are given for communications with other welfare departments, police, foster parents, etc. About 2% of time was spent in conversation with children.

9. The average number of children in care as rendered in official returns proved to be an unreliable guide to the actual caseload of Departments. The seven departments dealt with 1,412 cases during the four weeks; children in care formed just over half this total.

10. Each child in care who was dealt with at all took up an average of just under an hour of the whole four weeks. Reception into care took up the most time, so that Departments with a high turnover were more pressed than others.

CONCLUSIONS

The professional workers worked very long hours, and evidently did not have much time for reading or professional conferences. Even more important, they had hardly any time to get to know the children in their care; yet they had a very unrealistic picture of how their time was spent. Re-organisation of office routine could be beneficial. Liaison between departments should also be improved. The part played by secretarial assistants in helping with clients, foster families, etc., should be re-considered. Finally, a single professional organisation, rather than two, for Children's Officers and Child Care Officers is recommended.

MONSKY, SELMA F. (1963) *Staffing of local authority residential homes for children.* The Social Survey. Duplicated. 236 pp.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

An investigation by interview and questionnaire of the attitudes of present and former staff to their work in Local Authority residential homes for children, in order to throw light on reasons for heavy staff wastage. Duration of study: interviews conducted between November 1961 and January 1962. Commissioned by the Home Office and carried out by the Social Survey with the support of the Association of Municipal Corporations, County Councils Association and Local Authorities throughout England and Wales.

SAMPLE

(*a*) 528 full-time resident staff (Housemothers and Assistant Housemothers only) employed by Local Authority Children's Homes; nurseries and other special homes excluded.

(*b*) 309 ex-staff, otherwise as above.

(*c*) 125 Children's Officers.

All respondents were women. A wide age range was covered, but Housemothers were mainly middle-aged and Assistants mainly young girls. 25% of all current staff were aged 50 or over. 64% of all staff interviewed left school at 15 or earlier. 14% had completed Home Office training. 20% had no relevant previous experience or training at all. About 50% had had several jobs outside the service, often residential, and a few came straight from school or home.

Physical health: most respondents reported good health, but a small number of ex-staff did not. Mental health: hardly any respondents had experienced mental illness or a disrupted childhood. Socio-economic status: 24% came from the top two classes (G.R.O. Classification 1960),

49% from Class III, and 22% from Classes IV and V. Family structure: most Assistants were single, and about 50% of Housemothers were married or had been. Few staff had young children.

Selection of sample of current staff: family group Homes were systematically chosen by region and all staff interviewed if possible; from larger Homes a random sample was drawn. 1% of the whole sample refused the interview, 3% were ill or away. A high level of agreement was achieved between distribution of staff grades and of Homes in current staff sample and in the total population.

Selection of sample of ex-staff: the sample was drawn from a complete list of leavers (November 1960–October 1961). Many were hard to trace; the final sample was 309. Non-respondents tended to be young, single, and in some cases to have left 'under a cloud' (Local Authority information).

In both samples staff who were mainly administrators, domestics or infant nurses were excluded.

METHOD

(*a*) *Method of obtaining and recording information.* Current staff, ex-staff and Children's Officers (not part of the main sample) were first interviewed to supply information for compiling a detailed, structured questionnaire. Children's Officers had been sent the questionnaire some days before the interview. (All questionnaires, forms, letters, instructions to interviewers, etc. available in appendices.)

Current and ex-staff's interview lasted 2–3 hours, Children's Officers' less. Structured questionnaires were used with room for verbatim recording. Detailed instructions were given to interviewers. Current staff also filled in a diary form for one day. Finally, Children's Officers were asked for ratings (superior, satisfactory and below average) of staff and ex-staff, and for information about non-responders to discover whether their absence biased the sample.

(*b*) *Methods of analysis of data.* Text (including discussion); numbers and percentages; 108 tables.

FINDINGS

1. *Children's Officers' opinions*

(*a*) Recruitment is becoming more difficult; advertising is the best method.

(*b*) The job is becoming harder because standards are higher, and the 'better' children leave the Homes.

(*c*) Continuity was the attribute they valued most in staff.

(*d*) Most suggestions for improvement—except better staff communications—would increase costs.

2. *Wastage.* During one year 37% of all posts fell vacant, about one-third of these being for Housemothers and two-thirds for Assistants. About half of all these posts were losses to the service, rather than transfers. Turnover was higher in large Homes (but see text for possible reasons).

3. *Characteristics of current staff*

(*a*) Age, education, etc.: see under 'Sample'.

(*b*) Why they chose the job: 76% were attracted by the nature of the work, especially by the children; the other 24% mentioned outside pressures. About 90% expected the work to be permanent.

(*c*) Induction of newcomers: few remembered being asked how long they meant to stay, being warned about problems or given literature to read. 60% were shown round a Home.

(*d*) First reactions: the majority found the work worse than expected, but 64% would have taken the job even if they had known.

(*e*) Changing posts: about two-thirds of Housemothers had been in the service for 5 years or more, Assistants for a shorter time. Nearly half the total staff had been in only one post. Staff seldom moved to voluntary Homes. Most job transfers were within the same L.A., often arranged for administrative convenience. Most moves not caused by the L.A. were openly or covertly caused by job dissatisfaction.

(*f*) Trained staff (Home Office course) appeared very slightly more permissive than untrained staff.

4. *The nature of the work*

(*a*) Working hours: according to daily diaries submitted, hours were very long and 60% of the time spent in domestic work.

(*b*) Attitude to children: Assistants described Housemothers as much less permissive than Housemothers believed themselves to be. Assistants were less likely to leave democratic Housemothers.

(*c*) Relative importance of problems: long hours and lack of privacy were the main problems, more important than salary. Difficult children came next in importance, though most staff preferred difficult long-stay children to short-stay normal ones. Over half of staff who had lost children to foster-homes found this rather upsetting.

(*d*) Staff relationships: 70% of all staff would prefer a democratic to an efficient atmosphere if forced to choose. Both Assistants and Housemothers felt child care (not domestic work) was their own responsibility, and Assistants often thought Housemothers should concentrate on administration and teaching. Both groups stressed patience, understanding and humour as most needed (and lacking) qualities in their colleagues. About 25% were dissatisfied with relations with the Children's Department.

(*e*) Morale: three-quarters of staff wished to continue in the work (more Housemothers than Assistants), and would advise girls to go into the service.

(*f*) Promotion and status: four-fifths thought no higher promotion than Housemother could be expected. In ranking their status, staff placed themselves just below or equal to primary-school teachers.

5. '*Stayers*' *compared to* '*Leavers*'. (The two groups not strictly comparable, since Leavers contain far more Assistants, so some selection of data had to be made.)

(*a*) Characteristics: Leavers were younger, more likely to be married with children; in social background similar to Stayers. Training and previous experience (especially residential) predisposed towards staying. A majority of Leavers were rated satisfactory by Children's Officers. Stayers tended to be more authoritarian, and to find adults harder to get on with than children.

(*b*) Choice of job: ex-staff were as likely as current staff to say this work was their first choice; rather fewer had been influenced by outside pressures, and rather more attracted by the children. Assistants (ex and current) were more likely to think of it as temporary than Housemothers.

(*c*) Recruitment and induction: recruitment methods were similar for Leavers and Stayers, but Leavers remembered more preparation for the work, suggesting either that more is done to prepare for unattractive posts or that possible leavers are spotted and given mild discouragement.

(*d*) Reactions to the job: on every factor except 'difficult children', Leavers experienced more disillusionment than Stayers, but a majority of Leavers would have taken the job anyway. More preparation might have eliminated a small proportion of them.

(*e*) Present attitude: 74% missed the work, but only a third of these planned to return.

(*f*) Attitude to children: a permissive atmosphere is an important factor for the following reasons: ex-staff reported less permissiveness than current staff; Assistants were far more likely to have left an authoritarian home; and ex-Housemothers were more permissive than current. (Various explanations are discussed.)

(*g*) Relative importance of problems: long hours came first for Leavers as for Stayers; Leavers also complained more than Stayers about accommodation, staff relationships, no contact with Children's Department, too much domestic work, and shopping restrictions.

(*h*) Type of children in Homes: more Leavers preferred working with difficult children; so did more of the highly-rated staff.

(*i*) Morale and aspirations: only half as many Leavers as Stayers wanted future residential work of any kind. As with Stayers, three-quarters of Leavers would advise girls to take up the work, and promotion prospects looked similar to both.

(*j*) Leaving the service: nearly half of all Leavers had left during the first year. They had also transferred within the service more often than Stayers. Only 6% had left for marriage; 60% of reasons for leaving were job-related. 72% thought some of the children were upset by their leaving, and nearly one-third of this group had been surprised by the fact. 25% thought their superiors were indifferent, or pleased, at their leaving. Most Leavers took new jobs and 52% preferred the new job.

6. *Staff's suggestions for reducing wastage*

(*a*) Leavers: about half felt that something could have been done to make them stay. 40% of their suggestions concerned staff relations, 23% working conditions, and 37% other inducements.

(*b*) All staff: 85% thought that changes could reduce wastage and the major recommendations all concerned staff relations. Time off, staff accommodation and separate Homes for adolescents came next.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Wastage *can* be reduced, since most staff chose the work out of interest, but were disillusioned by working conditions.

2. It seems to be difficult to recognise unsatisfactory applicants; more forceful recruiting methods might be tried, together with more detailed selection tests.

3. In view of the wastage among young girls, widows might be employed as Assistants. Applicants with previous residential or domestic experience and few job changes have proved most likely to stay.

4. Since most Leavers drop out in the first year, applicants might be given a clearer description of what the work entails, including a stay in a Children's Home, and be helped through their first few months. Acceptance of wastage among Assistants, in particular, may be discouraging for them.

5. Long working hours should be shortened by using non-resident and relief staff, if necessary.

6. Staff accommodation should be improved to allow more privacy, which may involve making basic changes in the structure of Homes. In general, small Homes reduce wastage.

7. Since Housemothers and Assistants disagree about their roles, staff roles should be discussed and Housemothers encouraged to train and rely on their Assistants rather than see them as competitors for the children's affection.

8. Staff communications should be improved by appointing someone in the Children's Department solely to help staff, and by arranging group discussions with staff from other Homes.

9. The following findings deserve further consideration; that Housemothers see themselves as more permissive than their Assistants do; that Assistants less often leave Homes where they report a permissive atmosphere; that the system tends to retain the more authoritarian staff; that theory (e.g. 'staff should lead well-rounded lives') is inconsistent with the possibilities available to them.

10. Research might be done on the relative success of improvements in (*a*) recruitment; (*b*) selection; and (*c*) working conditions.

JEFFERYS, MARGOT (1965) *An anatomy of social welfare services.* Michael Joseph, London. 356 pp. Chapter 11; 'The work of the Child Care Officers'.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

One chapter from a survey of the work of social welfare workers in one English county.

SAMPLE

The total staff of the Buckinghamshire Children's Department in 1961: one Children's Officer and 16 Child Care Officers, of whom three were men.

METHOD

(*a*) Records and statistics were examined.

(*b*) The staff of the Department kept a record of their work, clients seen and services given over a limited period. To avoid seasonal bias, the study was spread over a 12-month period.

(*c*) Staff were interviewed for their opinions on training, attitude to work, etc.

FINDINGS

1. During the 12 months, 546 children were taken into care or placed under the supervision of the Department; 510 were discharged. In addition, many other enquiries were dealt with. In January, 1961, 857 children were in care; 54% of these were fostered, 31% in voluntary or

Local Authority Homes and nurseries, 15% in remand homes, Approved Schools, special schools and hostels.

2. Average working week of child care staff was 47 hours. 19 hours a week was spent with clients; an average of 23 cases seen during that time by each worker.

3. About one-third of clients had approached the Department themselves; the rest were referred by other welfare services. In 10% of cases, children were judged to be 'in need of care and protection'; 2% of admissions were apparently caused by housing difficulties, 5% were illegitimate children, 2% were admitted to avoid the breakdown of the family, and the majority were admitted because of death, illness or desertion of a parent.

Respondents estimated that 15% of households on their caseloads (including adoptive couples) presented no serious problems; the rest had multiple problems—social, health and personality difficulties. 28% had children with behaviour disturbances, 10% were neglecting or ill-treating their children, 28% had very disturbed parent-child relationships, 14% disturbed foster parent-child relationships, 11% inadequate means, 18% housing problems, 5% rent arrears.

4. Child Care Officers had contacted other welfare services on behalf of 60% of these clients during the previous year.

5. Child Care staff: Child Care Officers came mainly from non-manual-working families. 12 of the 16 had been to university; 6 had no specialised Child Care training and regretted the lack of it. Nearly all were satisfied with their choice of career. Many would have liked casework supervision; and some complained of low salaries and of shortage of time for serious casework. They were more critical than most of the other social workers interviewed about social policies: blaming poor housing provisions and lack of preventive services for clients' difficulties.

6. Organisation of the work: in general about 15% of Officers' duties were straightforward, and the rest were difficult in varying degrees.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Staff with only a two-year social work training would be adequate for most of the work of the Department, while university-trained workers would be needed for supervision, assistance and training. The work undertaken in this Department during the study did not seem to justify the Department's disproportionate share of the limited number of university-trained social workers.

Problem families might have been better dealt with if one worker had taken over total responsibility; better still, if the social services were re-organised in order that one 'family welfare service' dealt with all family problems (see chapter 20 of the book.)

KRAAK, BERNHARD (1965) 'Die Gruppenzieherin im Heim' (Women staff in Children's Homes), *Praxis der Kinderpsychologie u. Kinderpsychiatrie*, **14**, no. 5, 170–87.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

An enquiry into the opinions of Heads of Children's Homes on the qualities found most valuable in their female staff.

SAMPLE

109 Heads of Children's Homes (taking children under 14) and 58 Heads of Girls' Homes (taking girls from 14 to 21). The Homes were a random sample from all over Western Germany, and included Catholic, Protestant, and non-religious institutions.

METHOD

50 qualities of residential staff were listed and circulated by post to the respondents. They were asked to state whether each item was 'very important', 'important', or 'less important'. The list had been compiled by a training association for residential staff after a survey of the literature, and consultation with Heads of Homes and teachers of residential staff.

FINDINGS

1. About 92% of the 50 items were judged to be 'important' or 'very important'.

2. The following qualities were judged most important in the Children's Homes: trustworthiness, motherliness to her charges, respect for their individuality, understanding of their problems and ability to discuss them, ability to like and help disturbed children, conscientiousness, training, and ability to re-assess her methods.

3. The following qualities were judged most important in the older girls' Homes: similar qualities to the above, with the addition of ability to prepare the girls for life outside the Home, ability to allow independence, understanding of development and recognition of developmental problems, and ability to impose authority.

4. The following factors did not affect the choice of qualities: children attending State schools or the Home's own school, size of Homes and groups, children of preschool age or school age.

5. Protestant Homes stressed the importance of training ($P < 0{\cdot}05$), trustworthiness ($P < 0{\cdot}01$), belief in personal assent to religious rules ($P < 0{\cdot}05$), ability to teach the children to help in the house willingly ($P < 0{\cdot}01$), and ability to make the children like and obey her ($P < 0{\cdot}05$).

Catholic Homes stressed the preparation of children for life outside and ability to get on with their parents ($P<0{\cdot}05$), belief in personal assent to religious rules ($P<0{\cdot}01$), ability to educate the children politically ($P<0{\cdot}01$), and ability to help disturbed children ($P<0{\cdot}05$).

Non-religious Homes stressed respect for children's individuality ($P<0{\cdot}01$), being liked by the children ($P<0{\cdot}05$), and ability to allow independence ($P<0{\cdot}01$).

HERAUD, B. J. (1966) 'Students in institutions. A survey', *The Child in Care*, Sept. 1966, 13–16.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

A survey by the Department of Child Care and Social Studies of the North-Western Polytechnic of the experiences of students of social work during a period of residential training.

SAMPLE

55 students of both sexes undergoing a two-month practical placement during a course of child-care training. Ages varied from 19–46 years; previous experience from 2 months to 19 years. Placements were very varied. Each student was assigned to a supervisor and received at least one visit from a college tutor.

METHOD

Questionnaires including factual and open-ended questions were filled in by the students.

FINDINGS

1. Four-fifths of the group appreciated the link between theory and practical work. Visits by college tutors were particularly valued for discussing problems and relieving anxieties.

2. Two-thirds of the students were satisfied with the degree of responsibility and supervision allotted to them.

3. Over four-fifths of the group were satisfied with their accommodation.

4. Four-fifths were satisfied with off-duty time, though only half had enough time for study.

5. Three-quarters were apprehensive before placement, but only 15% continued dissatisfied, mainly due to bad relationships with their supervisor and uncertainty about their role in the Home.

6. Irrespective of age or length of experience of the students, (*a*) 11% had bad experiences. Of these, none had preliminary talks with supervisors or good relationships with them; all felt unwelcome on arrival and only 40% appreciated links with theoretical work. (*b*) 44% had mixed feelings. Of these, 75% had preliminary talks with supervisors and 4% had good relationships with them; one-third had felt unwelcome; 70% saw the link between theory and practice. (*c*) 45% had good experiences. All of these had preliminary discussions with supervisors and good relationships with them. None had felt unwelcome and all appreciated the link between college and practical work.

DISCUSSION

Students' placements should integrate theory and practice. Failure of this integration leads to dissatisfaction of students. Good relationships between supervisor and student is perhaps the key to successful placement.

WILLIAMS COMMITTEE (1967) *Caring for people: staffing residential Homes. The report of the Committee of Enquiry set up by the National Council of Social Service. Chairman: Professor Lady Williams, C.B.E.* Allen and Unwin, London, 222 pp.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

The report of the Committee enquiring into the staffing of residential Homes of several kinds, under the chairmanship of Lady Gertrude Williams.

SAMPLE AND METHOD

(*a*) A number of people connected with Homes for the elderly, for infants or children, for mothers and babies, and for physically or mentally handicapped adults, were invited to discussions with the Committee, and a large body of evidence was collected at 36 sessions. Committee members visited many Homes.

(*b*) A census of residential establishments was conducted by sending out questionnaires to all the relevant Homes in England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland, which could be located by Local Authorities or from central lists. The questionnaires, which varied according to the type of Home being studied, were formulated after two pilot surveys. 4,343 questionnaires were returned, representing about 60% of the whole field; and 1,198 usable forms relating to Children's Homes were returned, representing about 64% of all such Homes. Information on

voluntary and private establishments, whose staffing problems are sometimes different from those of other Homes because they are under religious discipline, is less full than for other Homes.

(*c*) Findings are listed and tabulated, implications discussed, and recommendations made.

FINDINGS (only those relevant to Children's Homes, nurseries and hostels are given here)

A. Children's Homes

1. *Size.* The average Local Authority Home contained 13 children, the average voluntary Home 28.

2. *Sex of children.* Boys outnumbered girls by 3 to 2.

3. *Staffing ratio.* The ratio of full-time care staff to children was 1 to 4. Staff ratios bore little relation to size of Home or age of children, except that in the largest voluntary Homes there were fewer staff to children than in the largest Local Authority Homes.

4. *Working conditions.* Over four-fifths of all care staff were full-time and resident; the proportion was higher in voluntary Homes and lower in Local Authority Homes.

5. *Age and sex.* One-fifth of staff were over 50; 80% of all staff were women; two-thirds single women.

6. *Turnover.* The average Children's Home replaced one-third of its staff during the year preceding the survey, a higher turnover than in other types of Home. Nearly 40% had had at least two Heads in the preceding five years.

7. *Accommodation.* A substantial majority of Heads of Homes (especially of voluntary Homes) were satisfied with accommodation for themselves and their staff, but privacy was the least satisfactory aspect.

8. *Accessibility.* Practically all Homes had good access to shops, transport, etc.

9. *Training.* 70% of all full-time care staff were without formal qualifications; more were unqualified in Local Authority than in voluntary Homes.

B. Nurseries, Reception Homes and hostels

1. *Size.* The typical nursery contained 23 children, the typical Reception Home 20, and the typical hostel, 12.

2. *Age of children.* 5% of children in nurseries were over 5. In hostels, 6% were under 15 and 10% over 21. In Reception Homes, 15% of children were under 5.

3. *Staffing ratio.* In nurseries, the ratio was one staff member to 1·5 children; in Reception Homes one to 3·2 children; in hostels, one to 4·8.

4. *Working conditions.* In nurseries, 17·5% of full-time staff were non-resident; in Reception Homes, 11·7%; in hostels, 2%.

5. *Age.* In nurseries, 63% of resident staff were under 21; in Reception Homes, 14%; in hostels, 2%. In nurseries virtually all staff were single women.

6. *Turnover.* Staff losses over the year were 39% for nurseries, 37% for Reception Homes, and 24% for hostels. In general, in all types of Home replacements were fewer than losses, i.e. there was a decline in total staff.

7. *Accommodation.* A substantial majority of Heads of Homes were satisfied with their accommodation, but they were less satisfied with their staff's accommodation. Privacy, space and cooking facilities were causes of dissatisfaction.

8. *Accessibility.* Nearly all Homes had good access to shops, transport, etc.

9. *Training.* 64% of staff in nurseries were untrained; in Reception Homes, 66% were untrained, and in hostels, 77%.

DISCUSSION

(*a*) *The nature of residential work.* The object of residential work is to create a harmonious group out of individuals brought together only by circumstances, and to combine security with independence for residents. Very special qualities and skills are needed: resourcefulness, respect for others, some knowledge of the workings of the mind and emotions, as well as skill in home-making.

(*b*) *Future demand for residential workers.* Taking into account demographic trends, social policy, and social and economic changes, there is little doubt that there will be a very considerable increase in the numbers required for staffing residential Homes in the next 10 or 15 years. But far more women marry, and marry young, than in the past, and every occupation depending on women to staff it, must reconsider its situation.

With these two considerations in mind, the following recommendations are made:

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. *Conditions of work*

(*a*) The working week of staff should be limited to 40 hours, if possible. There should be some free time each day, 1½ free days weekly, and a long weekend every month. Annual leave should be at least 4 weeks,

with possibly a longer period allowed to senior staff after several years of service.

(*b*) Consideration should be given to the use of relief staff, including part-time workers, and to the introduction of labour-saving arrangements.

(*c*) Good bed-sitting-room accommodation should be provided for assistant staff as well as seniors.

(*d*) Rules and restrictions for staff should be kept to a minimum.

(*e*) Experiments should be made with the greater use of non-resident workers, which would not only increase the pool of available staff but also keep Homes in touch with the community.

(*f*) Meetings, visits, refresher courses and supervision should be provided.

(*g*) Homes should be of all sizes to suit the needs of different residents and staff.

(*h*) National salary scales for assistant Heads of Homes should be negotiated. For all staff, charges for board and lodging should be adjusted to the provision made.

(*i*) Salaries should be adjusted so that in the early years of service there is an incentive to continue, and a bonus should be given for every 5 years of completed service. Salaries should be sufficient to attract men into residential work.

2. *Recruitment and promotion*

(*a*) In order to find the large number of recruits that will be needed, paramount consideration should be given to the 'public image' of residential work, and to opportunities for promotion.

(*b*) More older women, men and married couples should be sought; suggestions for interesting them are given.

(*c*) Consideration should be given to the organisation of pre-training work for young people.

(*d*) More care should be taken in the framing and distribution of advertisements for posts.

(*e*) Methods of selecting and appointing candidates for posts should be improved. Applicants should be informed about the nature of the work, and should visit Homes.

(*f*) A central Information Office should be established, preferably in connection with the new Social Work Advisory Service.

(*g*) A carefully organised career structure should be formulated to facilitate moves to senior posts (as tutors, advisers, or administrators in other fields).

(*h*) Steps should be taken to facilitate the movement of workers from one kind of residential work to another.

3. *Training*

(*a*) Training for all forms of residential care is essential.

(*b*) A two-year course for *all* types of residential work is recommended, with specialisation on one kind of care in the second year.

(*c*) For older, experienced students, a special one-year course should be experimentally set up.

(*d*) Both courses should be based on a recognised educational institution, normally a College of Further Education.

(*e*) Students should receive a nationally recognised Certificate in Residential Care on completion of the course.

(*f*) There should be a total training programme which would also provide for advanced courses at university level and schemes for in-service training. Appropriate training of some type should be available to all staff.

(*g*) Junior courses (home-making, introduction to the social services, visits to Homes, etc.) should be provided for school-leavers.

(*h*) A national training body, covering both social work and residential care, should be established to foster training, set standards, and encourage research.

(*i*) To ensure immediate progress in setting up the proposed courses, an Interim Council should be set up by the three existing Councils for the next two years.

(*j*) The cost of financing training should be met from public funds: from the Exchequer to finance the national training body and from local education grants to finance students. A pooling arrangement to finance staff seconded for training should be established.

(*k*) There should be a scheme which provides for the recognition of experience in older staff.

4. *Committee and community*

(*a*) Committee members should be recruited from as wide a section of the community as possible.

(*b*) Care should be taken to appoint those who will take their duties seriously and will prepare themselves for those duties.

(*c*) Experiments should be made in providing courses of preparation for Committee members.

(*d*) Encouragement should be given to establishing connecting links between the community and the Home.

CONCLUSIONS

The following points are re-emphasised:

(*a*) The increasing skill needed for residential work, and the public's ignorance of its importance.

(*b*) The variation in the standard of accommodation provided for staff.

(*c*) The lack of a clear career structure, which acts as a disincentive to prospective staff.

(*d*) The paramount importance of training for this work.

(*e*) The decreasing number of single women available, which involves fundamental re-thinking of staffing structure.

(*f*) The need for research on: small versus large Children's Homes, reasons for staff turnover, streamlining work in Homes, staff's children, community feeling in Homes, relationships with residents' families, etc.

(*g*) The inescapable necessity to spend more money if any significant improvements are to be made.

5. Children in Kibbutzim

Abstracts are listed in chronological order

RABIN, A. I. (1957) 'Personality maturity of Kibbutz and non-Kibbutz children as reflected in Rorschach findings'

RABIN, A. I. (1958) 'Behaviour research in collective settlements. Infants and children under conditions of "intermittent" mothering in the Kibbutz'

RABIN, A. I. (1958) 'Some psychosexual differences between Kibbutz and non-Kibbutz Israeli boys'

RABIN, A. I. (1959) 'Attitudes of Kibbutz children to family and parents'

KAFFMAN, M. (1961) 'Evaluation of emotional disturbance in 403 Israeli Kibbutz children'

KANETI-BARUCH, M. (1961) 'A Youth-Aliyah group in a Kibbutz'

RABIN, A. I. (1961) 'Kibbutz adolescents'

KAFFMAN, M. (1965) 'A comparison of psychopathology: Israeli children from Kibbutz and from urban surroundings'

RABIN, A. I. (1957) 'Personality maturity of Kibbutz and non-Kibbutz children as reflected in Rorschach findings', *Journal of Projective Techniques*, **21**, no. 2, 148–53.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

To test the effects of the absence of 'continuous mothering'[1] in infancy on the personality development of Kibbutz-reared children.

SAMPLE

38 Kibbutz-reared children randomly selected from 6 settlements, and 34 Israeli village children; all between 9 and 11 years old.

[1] Children in Israel's collective farming communities generally eat, sleep, and spend most of their day in 'children's houses', under the care of trained nurses and teachers. At the end of the working day, some time is always spent with parents, as is much of the weekend.

METHOD

Rorschach tests were administered and certain variables compared (those relating to intellectual and emotional maturation and those found relevant in studies of institutionalised children). Formal scores, ratios and global evaluations were made by three independent judges.

FINDINGS

On the basis of these tests, it appeared that:

1. The Kibbutz group were significantly superior in their attention to detail and mature perception of reality.

2. There were no significant differences in percentages of animal content or human responses.

3. Fewer Kibbutz children showed evidence of immaturity, and more showed maturity for their age than the control group.

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

1. There is no evidence of deleterious effects from 'discontinuous' mothering in the Kibbutz.

2. There is some evidence that Kibbutz children show greater personality maturity than controls.

3. There is no support for the idea that there is uniformity in the personalities of Kibbutz children.

The personality development of Kibbutz children in no way resembles that of institutionalised children; the two environments are very different. The experience of idealistic collective living may account for the greater maturity of personality in Kibbutz children.

RABIN, A. I. (1958) 'Behaviour research in collective settlements in Israel: infants and children under conditions of "intermittent" mothering in the Kibbutz', *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, **28,** no. 3, 577–86.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

An investigation of the development of infants and children under conditions of 'intermittent' mothering in the Kibbutz.

SAMPLE

(*a*) 24 infants between the ages of 9 and 17 months from five different Kibbutzim. All infants in the settlements visited who met the age requirement were included in this experimental sample.

(*b*) 40 children between the ages of 9 and 11 years from six different Kibbutzim. Every third child meeting the age requirement was included in this sample.

(*c*) Two parallel control groups from ordinary Israeli villages. 20 infants and 40 children were selected by means of sampling procedures similar to those described for the Kibbutzim.

METHOD

(*a*) Both infant groups were examined by means of the Vineland Social Maturity Scale and the Griffiths Scales for Infants. 'Metaplot' (trained nurses) provided information for the experimental infants, and the mothers for the control group.

(*b*) The 10-year-old children were given the Goodenough Draw-a-man test, a sentence completion test, projective tests, and detailed histories were obtained for about 60%. Results for experimental and control groups were compared.

FINDINGS

A. Infants

1. There was an almost significant trend in favour of the control group when Social Maturity Quotients were compared.

2. The control group scored significantly higher on the Griffiths Scale ($P < 0{\cdot}01$). The main factor responsible for the difference was the 'personal-social' factor.

B. Children

1. The average I.Q. of the Kibbutz group was higher than that of the non-Kibbutz group.

2. Kibbutz children's drawings were more mature and detailed, but the difference was not statistically significant.

3. Some of the ego factors on the Rorschach test showed significant differences in favour of the Kibbutz children.

DISCUSSION

It appears that although there may have been some backwardness among the Kibbutz infant group, these children tended to catch up and surpass the control group in later years. It may be that the early backwardness noted is due to the rather high child-adult ratio in infancy. The question that remains unanswered is: what is the experience which brings about the therapeutic results and apparently turns backwardness into slight superiority?

RABIN, A. I. (1958) 'Some psychosexual differences between Kibbutz and non-Kibbutz Israeli boys', *Journal of Projective Techniques*, **22**, no. 3, 328–32.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

To investigate whether Kibbutz-reared boys differ from boys from ordinary family settings with respect to: (*a*) 'Oedipal' reactions. (*b*) Identification with the father figure. (*c*) Sibling rivalry. The hypothesis proposed is that Kibbutz-reared boys will have less intense feelings in these areas than controls.

SAMPLE

27 Kibbutz-reared boys and 27 Israeli village boys, all randomly selected. Mean age: 10·2 years.

METHOD

Each child was examined by the Blacky test (a projective technique designed to assess psychosexual development within the psychoanalytic framework). Specific predictions were made concerning responses of the two groups to each of the questions.

Responses are classified and summarised, and the significance of differences between the groups statistically assessed.

FINDINGS

Although many responses showed a similar distribution between the groups, the following facts emerged:

1. The control group exhibited stronger Oedipal feeling than the experimental group on one of the relevant questions.
2. A clearer like-sex identification was expressed by the control group in answers to two out of 4 relevant questions.
3. Greater sibling rivalry was expressed by the control group on two of the three relevant questions.

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATION

All the significant differences were obtained in the direction predicted by the author, and are believed to be related to the fact that the Kibbutz mother is not the sole first 'object' of the child; that identification is more diffuse in the Kibbutz, due to limited contact with parents and the importance of nurses and teachers; and that Kibbutz-reared boys grow up with a whole peer group of 'siblings'.

RABIN, A. I. (1959) 'Attitudes of Kibbutz children to family and parents', *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, **29**, no. 1, 172–9.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

To discover whether the Kibbutz system has any effect upon the attitude of the child to its family.

SAMPLE

92 Kibbutz-reared children and 45 control children from Israeli villages, aged 9 to 11 years. Of the Kibbutz group, 50 were boys; of the control group, 24 were boys.

METHOD

Each child was given 36 incomplete sentences dealing with attitudes to father, mother and family. Responses were classified as positive or non-positive by the author and an independent psychologist (the percentage of agreement was 92·5). Global evaluations of attitudes were also made by three independent judges. The significance of differences was determined by chi-square test.

FINDINGS

1. The Kibbutz group were generally more positive in their attitude towards the family, especially in comparing their own families with those of others.
2. Kibbutz boys were rather more positive to the mother than control boys.
3. Control girls were more positive to the father than Kibbutz girls.

DISCUSSION

Findings (1) and (2) were consistent with expectations, since Kibbutz parents are not their children's main socialising agents, and they have a non-punitive attitude. In view of this child-parent relationship in the Kibbutzim, finding (3) was puzzling.

KAFFMAN, MORDECAI (1961) 'Evaluation of emotional disturbance in 403 Israeli Kibbutz children', *American Journal of Psychiatry*, **117**, no. 8, 732–8.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

To study a sample of typical behaviour problems in Kibbutz children, with special regard to those associated with maternal deprivation, and with the general aim of comparing them with the behaviour problems of children in American society.

SAMPLE

217 boys and 186 girls up to the age of 12 years, representing the total population of three Israeli Kibbutzim, and considered to be a cross-section sample of the Kibbutz Artzi movement, investigated over a period of 12 months (1956).

METHOD

(*a*) Data were collected in interviews with nurses, teachers and parents, to assess the development and child-parent relationships of the children.

(*b*) Psychiatric observation was made of the children during their daily routine in the Kibbutz.

(*c*) The behaviour problems were defined, as precisely as possible, and agreement about assessment of children reached at meetings of nurse, teacher, parent and psychiatrist when necessary. The data were integrated by the author, who knew all children and parents over a period of years. Symptoms are tabulated and compared with figures quoted elsewhere for unselected samples of American children.

FINDINGS

1. *Thumbsucking*. Between the ages of 2 and 3 years no difference from American children was found, but in the age-range 3 to 9 years, 41% of Kibbutz children were thumbsuckers—about 3 times the incidence found in American children.

2. *Feeding problems*. Only 7% of the Kibbutz group showed any sign of such problems, compared with 20% of a typical group of American children.

3. *Night fears*. Only 3% of Kibbutz children between 1·6 and 12 years presented night fears, in spite of the fact that the children sleep away from adults for most of the night. This incidence is low in comparison with usual figures.

4. Other symptoms investigated (masturbation, enuresis, aggression, etc.) matched the usual figures or even appeared less prominent. No evidence was found of an unusually high percentage of behaviour problems attributable to emotional deprivation.

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATION

The author suggests that the remarkable incidence of thumbsucking is related to the brief nursing period (3 months) and the permissive attitude of adults towards this symptom.

The very low frequency of feeding problems he attributes to the large part played by the nurse, rather than the mother, in feeding functions and training.

It is recommended that further research on normal child development be carried out in the Kibbutzim.

KANETI-BARUCH, MALKA (1961) 'A Youth Aliyah Group in a Kibbutz', (Title translated from Hebrew), *Megamot Child Welfare Research Quarterly*, **11**, no. 2, 124–42.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

This paper summarises the first stage of a longitudinal study of one Youth Aliyah group in a Kibbutz. The aim of the study is to examine group processes and the individual development of group members during their four-year stay in the Kibbutz.

SAMPLE AND METHOD

The study is based on a yearly testing programme consisting of:

(*a*) Background information provided on a questionnaire filled out by the parents or social worker.

(*b*) Information on personality, intelligence and achievements assessed by the A. Rey test.

(*c*) The attitude of the children to the group as expressed on projective tests.

(*d*) Sociometric tests.

(*e*) Assessment of children by their instructors in monthly observations.

The group consisted of 42 12-year-old boys and girls from 18 countries; they had had about six years' schooling, and were recruited from severely disturbed or destitute homes. The parents were mostly illiterate—only the minority of them had finished elementary school. The children were divided into two groups according to their I.Q., were working in the different branches of the Kibbutz and eating in its dining room.

FINDINGS

The first testing programme was undertaken six months after the formation of the group. The material shows that in this early formative

period the children's adjustment to the group, to the new social environment and to the everyday demands made upon them, was more or less smooth and satisfactory and their attitude towards group and Kibbutz values was fairly positive. Their sociometric choices reflected to a high degree the attitude of the instructors towards different group members. The 'popular'—most of whom were more intelligent and emotionally better balanced than the group average—formed a potential nucleus of 'positive leadership'. Intelligence, as well as emotional stability and character, determined the status of everyone in the group. It was noticed that the 'popular' children were friends with each other—around them was a fringe of children who were less popular.

Instructors tended to transfer group values to its members. Attitude scores of the 'populars' on values inherent in Youth Aliyah objectives were higher than group averages, and the behaviour of the 'popular' boys more highly valued by the instructor.

RABIN, A. I. (1961) 'Kibbutz adolescents', *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, **31**, 3, 493–505.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

To study a group of Kibbutz-reared adolescents and compare their development with that of a control group. Part of a symposium on 'Culture components as a significant factor in child development'.

SAMPLE

30 Kibbutz adolescents and 25 non-Kibbutz: all aged 17 and equally divided between the sexes. Kibbutz young people were drawn from four Kibbutzim and the control group from three different villages.

METHOD

The following projective techniques were employed: the Rorschach Test; a Sentence Completion Test; and the Thematic Apperception Test.

FINDINGS

1. *Rorschach Test.* The Kibbutz group were more productive than the control group and they gave their responses more immediately, with less anxiety and inhibition. Kibbutz subjects used the 'play' category more often than controls and the 'aggression' category less often. The overall adjustment of both groups appeared to be similar.

2. *Sentence Completion Test.* Kibbutz adolescents did not differ from controls with respect to familial attitudes. They rejected the idea of early sexual relations; their goals and future aspirations were less specific than those of the non-Kibbutz subjects.

3. *Thematic Apperception Test.* The stories of Kibbutz adolescents appeared to be less achievement-oriented, less populated with family characters and they saw less conflict between parents and children. There was also a greater tendency to reject heterosexuality altogether.

DISCUSSION

In general, the Kibbutz adolescent was at least as well adjusted as his non-Kibbutz counterpart. There was some evidence that he was more spontaneous and at least as intelligent. The Kibbutz adolescent does not seem to differ from the control in positiveness of attitude to parents, and also he tended to be less in conflict with them. He was more rigidly concerned with taboos on premarital sex and was less ambitious in the conventional sense. The differences are discussed in relation to the different social structures to which the two groups had been exposed, the Kibbutz adolescent having been educated to value his part in the community more than his own individual achievements.

KAFFMAN, MORDECAI (1965) 'A comparison of psychopathology: Israeli children from Kibbutz and from urban surroundings', *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, **35**, No. 3, 509–20.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE

To compare the characteristics of child psychopathology in Kibbutz and in urban children in Israel, in order to find out whether the Kibbutz upbringing results in any special pattern of behaviour disturbance.

SAMPLE

84 children from many different Kibbutzim and 97 children from Haifa up to 18 years of age. All had been referred to clinics for severe emotional disturbance; cases of organic disease and mental deficiency were excluded. The urban group came from more varied socio-economic backgrounds than Kibbutz children. Age distribution, sex ratio and symptoms were similar in both groups.

METHOD

The children were seen by the author, a psychiatrist, at clinics in Haifa and in Kibbutzim between 1962 and 1964. Data on symptoms such as

primary behaviour disorders, neurotic traits, psychopathy and psychosomatic illness were evaluated, and analysed by age, sex and severity of symptoms. Findings for the two groups are tabulated.

FINDINGS

1. Only 3% of the Kibbutz children were of pre-school age compared with 11% of the urban group.
2. In both groups there was a preponderance of males below puberty.
3. There was less severe psychopathology in the Kibbutz children (47%) than in the urban groups (60%).
4. There were 5 cases of asthma in each group. All were boys in the Kibbutz group; of the urban children, 4 were girls.
5. There was a total absence of psychopathy in Kibbutz children compared with an incidence of 70% in the urban group.
6. Six Kibbutz children between 8 and 12 years showed a distinct variety of primary behaviour disorder: the 'outcast' child, exhibiting social withdrawal, non-conformity and ideas of grandeur. In all these cases there were severely disturbed child-parent relationships.

SUMMARY

No specific 'Kibbutz psychopathology' was discovered, and no evidence that the Kibbutz system of upbringing could be considered pathogenic; emotional pathology among the urban children was in fact evaluated as consistently more severe than among the Kibbutz children.

6. Annotated bibliography

(Each section is arranged chronologically. The initials N.B.C.C.C. stand for National Bureau for Co-operation in Child Care.)

1. Research not abstracted

(Studies not in Chapter 4; research reviews; discussions of research methodology.)

BERES, D. and OBERS, S. J. (1950) 'Effects of extreme deprivation in infancy on psychic structure in adolescence', *The Psychoanalytic Study of the Child*, **5**, 212–35.

A follow-up study of adolescents and young people who had experienced early separation and institutional care, taken from case records. 7 out of 38 appeared to have made a satisfactory adjustment; 4 were diagnosed as psychotic, 21 as having character disorders, 4 as mentally retarded, and 2 as psychoneurotic. Therapy was successful in several cases.

WIDDOWSON, E. M. (1951) 'Mental contentment and physical growth', *Lancet*, **1**, 1316.

Children in two German orphanages in 1948 were compared for weight increase, the populations in each Home being given extra bread rations in turn. Children in the harshly run Home failed to gain weight on the extra rations, while those living under a kinder régime did gain weight.

DEVON COUNTY COUNCIL, CHILDREN'S COMMITTEE (1953) *What happens when Homes close?* Operational Research Report No. 6. Duplicated. 13 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Arrangements made for children and staff when one Children's Department closed Homes during a drive to foster more children in families.

HAGGERTY, A. D. (1953) 'The intellectual functioning of a post-institutional group', *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, **83**, 303–6.

A group of institutionalised adolescents were found to have an average I.Q. of 85, and the discrepancy between verbal and performance tests suggested emotional disturbance.

HAGGERTY, A. D. (1954) 'The use of the altitude with a post-institutional group', *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, **85**, 341–4.

As a follow-up of the previous study, further analysis of I.Q. scores of adolescents was carried out and a discrepancy was found between function and potentiality. Language and motivation were particularly deficient.

STANLEY, W. L. (1954) 'Frictions in a children's institution', M.S.W. thesis, School of Social Work, University of Toronto.

An observational study in a small Children's Home. Day-long recording for a week disclosed that the main causes of friction (in this order) were: 'personal needs', 'lack of privacy', 'shared playthings', 'possessions', 'boy-girl rivalry', and 'interruption of games'. Low-status children were predominantly involved in the occasions of friction.

STONE, L. J. (1954) 'A critique of studies of infant isolation', *Child Development*, **25**, 9–20.

A discussion of the opposing arguments on maternal deprivation and a plea for more rational study of the conditions fostering or retarding infant development, with provision of the best possible care in the meantime. Early studies of isolated children are referred to.

KANDIL, B. A. (1955) 'A study of the Thematic Apperception Test as applied to a group of institutionalised children', M.A. thesis, University of London.

Thematic Apperception Test responses of 14 boys aged 11–13, who had been in institutions since the age of five were compared with those of matched controls. The institutionalised boys expressed a more resistant attitude to parents, saw them as more denying and rejecting, and used more themes of aggression and danger.

GALANTE, M. (1956) 'Intelligence and school achievement of institutionalised children', Ph.D. thesis, Fordham University Graduate School of Education, New York. Abstract available at N.B.C.C.C.

A study of 644 Catholic institutionalised children aged 12–14. Average I.Q. was in the 80s, with scores on verbal sub-test significantly lower than on non-verbal. There was marked retardation in school achieve-

ment, but length of institutionalisation did not significantly affect results.

GLASER, K. and EISENBERG, L. (1956) 'Maternal deprivation', *Paediatrics*, **18**, 626–42.

A critical review of research up to 1955, with practical recommendations for prevention and therapy.

SHERIDAN, M. D. (1956) 'The intelligence of 100 neglectful mothers', *British Medical Journal*, **4958**, 91–3.

The results of intelligence tests given to 100 mothers found guilty of child neglect. 70% had an I.Q. below 84.

HIRSCH, W. (1957) 'A study of the affective state of institution children as indicated by the Rorschach test', M.A. thesis, University of London.

15 boys who had been institutionalised for at least five years, with two matched control groups, were given Rorschach tests. Interpreted blind on 12 personality traits, protocols showed significantly positive correlations with teachers' assessments. The institutionalised group showed significantly more neurotic tendencies, 80% manifesting symptoms of emotional disturbance.

ALLERHAND, M. (1958) 'Selection of cottage personnel', *Child Welfare*, **38**, 10 , 14–18. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A pilot study of the construction of a scaled questionnaire for selecting successful child care staff.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA (1958) *Deterrents to the adoption of children in foster care*, by Bernice Boehm. New York.

A pilot project for the fuller study by Maas and Engler (see p. 66). In a New England community nearly half the children in care were without parental ties, many were suffering from multiple handicaps and behaviour problems, and some might have been adopted before their age and handicaps made this unlikely. Over half had had multiple placements, and caseworkers were relatively untrained and changed frequently.

COLVIN, R. W. (1958) 'Defective ego and social development as functions of prolonged institutionalisation of children', *American Psychologist*, **13**, 327.

Abstract of a paper read at a Symposium, describing the author's research relating length of time spent in institution, foster home and natural home to measures of ego development, social status, and psychopathology. Personality disorder was found to be significantly associated with early and prolonged institutionalisation.

DUFOUR, J. (1958) 'Interpersonal and environmental expectancies of emotionally disturbed children in residential treatment', Master's thesis, University of Ottawa, Canada.

Children in a residential treatment centre were asked to describe their most liked and disliked home, family, etc. Those who had experienced the longest early institutionalisation wrote in concrete rather than personal terms. One of the Astor Home research projects described by Ralph Colvin (see above).

EWASKO, P. (1958) 'Ego development and social acceptability as functions of past living experience', Master's dissertation, Fordham University.

A comparison of the symptomatology of children in a psychiatric centre who had been in foster homes and in institutions; two typical patterns of disturbance emerged: institutionalised children showed a *lack* of ego structure, while fostered children revealed an apparent *defect* in ego structure.

LAUNAY, C., VERLIAC, F., TRELAT, E. and LYDARD, D. (1958) 'La carence des soins maternels dans la petite enfance, la frustration précoce et ses effets cliniques' (Frustration and maternal deprivation in early childhood and its clinical effects), *Psychiatrie de l'Enfant*, Paris, **1**, no. 2, 523–40. Available at the Library of the International Union for Child Welfare.

A detailed survey of research into maternal deprivation up to the time of publication. Recommendations for future medical, therapeutic and social plans are made, and it is urged that much more money will have to be spent on children's services. Bibliography.

MITGLIEDER-RUNDBRIEF (1958–59) 'Übersicht über die derzeitigen Ausbildungsmöglichkeiten in den zur Durchführung der Fürsorgeerziehung in Anspruchgenommen Heimen in der Bundesrepublik und Westberlin' (A survey of current possibilities for vocational training in Homes in West Germany and Berlin which are responsible for the later upbringing of children in care.) *Mitglieder-Rundbrief* **1/2**, 1–8. Available at the National Bureau voor Kinderbescherming, the Hague.

Results of an enquiry made to determine which courses of professional training can be and are followed by young people living in institutions, who are not subject to compulsory education. Divided into professional training within and outside the institution. The enquiry involved 10,612 boys and girls, living in 132 different institutions.

BERG, M. and COHEN, B. (1959) 'Early separation from mother in schizophrenia', *Journal of Nervous and Mental Diseases*, **128**, 365–9.

In a mental hospital population, female schizophrenics had had more separations from their mothers in childhood than had neurotics.

FLINT, B. M. (1959) *The security of infants*. University of Toronto Press, Toronto. 134 pp.

A procedure for testing and assessing the mental health of children under two is described, and two chapters are devoted to the use of the scale with infants in residential nurseries. Case histories illustrating the decline of security and initiative in institutionalised infants are given.

HAGGERTY, A. D. (1959) 'The effects of long-term hospitalisation or institutionalisation upon the language development of children', *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, **94**, 205–9.

The speech of institutionalised children was analysed from responses to projective tests, and the number of parts of speech were compared with schizophrenic and normal samples. Institutionalised children's speech was considered to be slightly nearer to schizophrenics than normals.

HANNAN, P. (1959) 'Past living experiences and foster home relationship adjustment', Master's thesis, University of Ottawa.

A study relating the length of prior institutionalisation to success in foster homes. Children with some intact family experience related better to foster parents and peers than those without. One of the linked Astor Home research projects (see p. 228).

RICHMOND, J. B. (1959) 'Research in child welfare', *Child Welfare*, **38**, no. 4, 1–5.

The author makes a plea for more maturity in child welfare research; more communication with social and behavioural scientists, and a less hasty and literal application of findings. Student social workers should be taught a critical attitude to research.

SHERIDAN, M. D. (1959) 'Neglectful mothers', *Lancet*, **1**, **7075**, 722–5.

A further account of the 100 mothers described in an earlier paper (see p. 227). Information is given about their children and husbands, and factors affecting their subsequent progress analysed. Poor intelligence was not found to be a bar to improvement.

TALMON, Y. G. (1959) 'The family and patterns of lodging for children in the Kibbutz' (title translated from Hebrew). *Niv Hakvutza*, February, pp. 19–68.

Summary of a research project conducted by the Sociology Department of the Hebrew University concerning the relationship of the family to communal living for children in the Kibbutz, and the changing status of the family in the Kibbutz. Conventional and radical points of view were found to be equally represented; prevailing opinion was that from the age of 12 years communal lodging is preferable, while family lodging is advisable for the smaller children. Belief in communal lodging was based on Kibbutz ideology, while those in favour of family lodging stressed the importance of family relationships for children. Women were more family-minded than men; there were no great differences between the point of view of the second generation and that of the parents. In general, there was unanimity only about the older children, for whom most members favoured communal lodging; about other ages there was disagreement.

WEIDEMANN, J. (1959) 'Das Kind im Heim' (The child in a Home), *Zeitschrift für Kinderpsychiatrie*, pp. 1–10. Available at the National Bureau voor Kinderbescherming, the Hague.

An investigation involving 121 institution children and 62 children from families. Children from the first group were found to be 20% behind the others, both quantitatively and qualitatively, especially between the third and fifth year of life.

BARRY, H. and LINDEMANN, E. (1960) 'Critical ages for maternal bereavement in psychoneuroses', *Psychosomatic Medicine*, **22**, no. 3, 166–81.

A significantly large proportion of female mental patients studied had experienced prolonged or permanent separation from their mothers before the age of 9. The most critical age was from birth to 2 years.

HUTMACHER, W. (1960) *Recherches sur les problèmes de placement d'enfants et adolescents dans les services sociaux de Genève. Recensement des enfants placés par les services sociaux de Genève au* 15 *juin* 1960 (Study of the problems of placement of children and adolescents through the social

services of Geneva. Census of children placed by the social services of Geneva up to June 15th 1960). Geneva, Département de l'Instruction Publique, Office de la Jeunesse. 2 vols. Available at the Library of the International Union for Child Welfare.

An official study of placement in Geneva, covering age, sex, background of children in care, reasons for placement, types of placement and length of stay in care. The conclusions are: that more money should be available for provision for children with special needs (maladjusted, retarded); that multiple placements are too common; and that residential staff's working conditions should be improved (average working week in 1960, 60–80 hours).

POLANSKY, N. (1960) 'Social work research', in *Encyclopaedia of Social Work*. University of Chicago Press, Chicago. 306 pp.

A comprehensive review covering research design, sampling, measurement, data collection and the particular problems of social research.

RHEINGOLD, H. L. (1960) 'The measurement of maternal care', *Child Development*, **31**, 565–75.

Description of an observational, time-sampling method of measuring the amount of maternal care given in varying settings, e.g. in institutions and normal homes. Used in the author's studies of infants (see pp. 103 and 106).

BAKER, J. W. and HOLZWORTH, A. (1961) 'Social histories of successful and unsuccessful children', *Child Development*, **32**, 135–49.

71 children aged 13–16 in a State mental hospital were compared with a matched group judged to be normal and successful. 72% of the hospital group had been placed away from home before hospitalisation, about half on account of delinquent behaviour, half on account of neglect and family break-up. Average number of placements was 3·3, and average age at the time of first placement 8·2 years.

BARLOW, M. G. (1961) 'Self concept as a function of social experience: a study of thirty-four boys in residence at the Astor Home, Rhinebeck, New York, to determine the relationship between the self concept and the length of time they have spent in their family setting or in institutions', Master's dissertation, Fordham University.

A study of the relationship between early deprivation of parents and personality characteristics evident during residential treatment (see also linked research projects, pp. 228, 229, 233).

CASLER, L. (1961) *Maternal deprivation: a critical review of the literature.* Monograph of the Society for Research in Child Development. 64 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A review of maternal deprivation literature from a different standpoint than that of the World Health Organisation monograph *Deprivation of maternal care* (see p. 248). Experimental work on animals is emphasised.

CHRISTAENS, L. (1961) 'Les enfants abandonnés' (Abandoned children). *Sauvegarde de l'Enfance*, Paris, pp. 406–17. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Figures are given for numbers of children in France abandoned, orphaned, adopted and voluntarily or compulsorily made wards of the State. While the number of children orphaned or abandoned has dropped, the number taken into care by Court action has increased.

EARLE, A. M. and EARLE, B. V. (1961) 'Early maternal deprivation and later psychiatric illness', *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, **31**, 181–6.

100 adult patients who had experienced long separations in early childhood were found to have a higher incidence of broken marriages, sociopathic personality and poor work records than controls.

PACKMAN, J. (1961) 'Children in care', unpublished pilot study, Oxford University Department of Social and Administrative Studies. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A preliminary study for *Variations in the number of children in care throughout England and Wales* (see p. 81). Child care statistics for the whole country are discussed, and the figures for Oxford and Oxfordshire examined in greater detail.

DAVID, M. and APPELL, G. (1962) 'Étude des facteurs de carence affective dans une pouponnière' (Study of factors contributing to maternal deprivation in a residential nursery), in *La Psychiatrie de l'Enfant*, Paris, Vol. 4.

A fuller version of the study reported in English in *A study of nursing care and nurse-infant interaction* (see p. 110).

EKDAHL, M., RICE, E. and SCHMIDT, W. (1962) 'Children of parents hospitalised for mental illness', *American Journal of Public Health*, **52**, no. 3, 428–35. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A study of 84 families led to the conclusion that welfare services are not providing adequate help for this group.

FANSHEL, D. and MAAS, H. S. (1962) 'Factorial dimensions of the characteristics of children in placement and their families', *Child Development*, **33**, 123–44. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A further statistical analysis of the characteristics of the children studied in *Children in need of parents* (see p. 66).

FANSHEL, D. (1962) 'Research in child welfare: a critical analysis', *Child Welfare*, **41**, no. 10, 484–507.

Major issues and trends are analysed and areas for future study suggested. Full bibliography.

GLASER, K. (1962) 'Implications from maternal deprivation research for practice theory in child welfare', in *Maternal deprivation*, Child Welfare League of America. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

The author recommends: trained, well-paid foster parents; the conversion of institutions into therapeutic centres; the avoidance of sentimental 'rescue fantasies' which may dissipate, rather than concentrate, therapeutic resources.

MCKENNA, B. (1962) 'Post-discharge school achievement of institutionalised children: an exploration of the effects of early interpersonal experiences on the academic achievement and personal adjustment of thirty-seven emotionally disturbed boys subsequent to residential treatment at Astor Home for Children', Master's thesis, Fordham University.

One of the series of related research projects undertaken in connection with the Astor Home for Children, New York (see also pp. 228, 229, 231)

HILGARD, J. R. and NEWMAN, M. F. (1963) 'Early parental deprivation as a functional factor in the aetiology of schizophrenia and alcoholism', *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, **33**, no. 3, 409–20.

An analysis of a large sample of adult hospitalised patients, demonstrating that more schizophrenics had lost their mothers, and at an earlier age, than controls.

LURIA, Z., GOLDWASSER, M. and GOLDWASSER, A. (1963) 'Response to transgression in stories by Israeli children', *Child Development*, **34**, 271–80.

Four samples of children were compared on their responses to incomplete stories about naughty behaviour: Kibbutz children, other Israeli children, American Jewish children, and American Gentile children.

Kibbutz children used confession (considered an indicator of moral development) more readily than other Israeli children, and differences between boys' and girls' responses were less among Jewish children than Gentiles.

PATTON, R. G. and GARDNER, L. I. (1963) *Growth failure in maternal deprivation*. Thomas, New York. 94 pp.

A series of clinical studies of the measurable physical effects of deprivation in infancy.

MECH, E. V. (1964) 'Child welfare research: a review and critique', *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, Philadelphia, **355**, 20–30. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A discussion of four areas of study—characteristics of child welfare populations, evaluation of welfare services, decision-making, and developmental studies of children and families—and a criticism of current inadequate standards of child welfare research.

SHAMES, M. (1964) 'Use of Homemaker Service in families that neglect their children', *Social Work*, **9**, 12–18.

Describes a demonstration project using homemakers to teach household management in families seriously neglecting their children. Although none of the families had responded to previous help from social workers, at the end of the first year there was striking improvement in the children and the homes.

SHYNE, A. W. (1964) 'Social work research—an overview and appraisal', *Child Welfare*, **43**, no. 3, 109–16. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A discussion of concepts, methods and limitations.

TRASLER, G. (1964) 'Technique, research and theory in child care', *Child Care*, **18**, no. 4, 125–32.

The author defines what professionalism should mean for child care workers: neither the practice of psychotherapy, nor intuition, but a recording, reviewing and objective systematization of the techniques that lead to the most successful practice.

YARROW, L. J. (1964) 'Separation from parents during early childhood', in Hoffman, M. L. and Hoffman, L. W., *Review of child development research*. Russell Sage, New York, pp. 89–136.

An authoritative review of relevant research which also contains a progress report on the ongoing research of Yarrow and Goodwin on 'Effects on personality development of separation from a temporary mother-figure during infancy' (see p. 304).

BRIELAND, D. (1965) 'An assessment of resources in child welfare research', in Norris, M., and Wallace, B. *The known and unknown in child welfare research: an appraisal.* New York. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

The author surveys the resources of schools of social work, research centres, philanthropic foundations, etc., and makes practical recommendations for co-operating programmes.

GERSHENSON, C. P. (1965) 'Institutionalisation of child welfare research', in Norris, M. and Wallace, B. *The known and unknown in child welfare research: an appraisal.* New York. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A plea for restructuring and co-ordination of child welfare research facilities.

GEWIRTZ, J. L. (1965) 'The course of infant smiling in four child-rearing environments in Israel', in Foss, B. M., ed., *Determinants of infant behaviour*, Vol. III, London. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Infants' smiling during their first 18 months was observed in a Kibbutz, day nursery, residential nursery and family. There was most similarity between the family and the Kibbutz groups, and between the residential and day nursery groups.

HARTUNG, K. and GLATTKOWSKI, H. (1965) 'Erhebungen über Aufenthaltsdauer und Gründe, die auf Heimaufnahme von Säuglingen führen' (Considerations regarding the length of stay and the reasons for admission of infants to Homes), *Praxis der Kinderpsychologie und Psychiatrie*, **14**, 10, no. 7, 241–5; **14**, 11, no. 8, 297–303. Available at the Nationaal Bureau voor Kinderbescherming, The Hague.

Children in Children's Homes exhibit a definite retardation of development. The number of infants placed in Homes and Institutions is rising. The authors report the results of their research into the social background of the infants and the reasons for their being placed in Homes.

HERSTEIN, N. (1965) 'A critique of current research in child welfare', in Norris, M. and Wallace. B., *The known and unknown in child welfare research: an appraisal.* New York. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Six major studies by the following authors are discussed: Howard

Polsky, David Fanshel, Martin Wolins, Scott Briar, Norman Polansky, D. W. Goodrich and Donald Boomer.

HOLMAN, R. (1965) 'How children see fostering', *New Society*, **6**, no. 164, pp. 22–3. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Twenty boys' attitudes to foster and residential care were investigated in interviews. The uncertain status of institutions and houseparents was reflected in their answers. The author recommends that institutional care be given more attention.

KADUSHIN, A. (1965) 'Introduction of new orientations in child welfare research', in Norris, M. and Wallace, B., *The known and unknown in child welfare research: an appraisal*. New York. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

The author stresses the influence of practical, social factors rather than psychological ones in the families whose children come into care, and recommends a more realistic attitude to the causes of parental pathology, its treatment, and consequently to the future choice of research subjects.

MECH, E. V. (1965) 'Practice-oriented research on separation in child welfare', in Norris, M. and Wallace, B., *The known and unknown in child welfare research: an appraisal*. New York. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

An extensive research review and bibliography of 120 titles.

NORRIS, M. and WALLACE, B., Eds. (1965) *The known and unknown in child welfare research: an appraisal*. Child Welfare League of America and National Association of Social Workers, New York. 214 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Proceedings of a Conference on child welfare research containing valuable articles on current trends, method, resources and planning (see also Mech, Herstein, Brieland, Gershenson).

OXFORD HOUSE IN BETHNAL GREEN (1965) 'London Government: problems of transition. An enquiry on the transfer of powers relating to child care from the L.C.C. to the new Borough of Tower Hamlets.' Duplicated. 28 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A joint student research project on reorganisation within a Children's Department. Subjects discussed are reasons for organisational change, merits and demerits of systems of organisation, and the period of transition; an analysis of administrative structure is made.

BALBERNIE, R. (1966) *Residential work with children.* Pergamon Press, London. 244 pp.

A discussion of residential care for maladjusted children, with implications for all residential work.

GILES, D., ROTHMAN, R., TANNENBAUM, J. and CALDWELL, B. (1966) 'Child welfare study of Syracuse and Onondoga County', Council of Onondoga County, New York. Duplicated. 457 pp.

A descriptive and statistical survey of child welfare data in one area of New York State. Illegitimacy and problem families were the cause of most admissions. Non-white families were over-represented. The findings of Maas and Engler (see p. 66) regarding long-term foster care were substantiated, and when children returned home, family problems were often unchanged. Casework, mental health facilities and preventive services were considered inadequate. More co-operation between planners and practitioners is recommended.

HEINICKE, C. M. and WESTHEIMER, I. J. (1966) *Brief separations.* Longmans, London, 355 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A detailed observational study of ten two-year-olds' reactions to a few weeks' stay in a residential nursery, using the same methods as the authors' earlier study (see p. 135). Reactions during separation and after returning home are described in relation to each child's history; findings confirmed those of the previous study. On follow-up some time later, none of the children showed overt signs of emotional or intellectual damage.

HOLMAN, R. (1966) 'The child and the Child Care Officer', *Case Conference*, **13**, no. 2, 39–43.

Of 20 older foster children interviewed, nearly all spoke warmly of their Child Care Officers. The author recommends that the Child Care Officer does not underestimate his role by remaining too much in the background, but instead gives positive friendship, especially to adolescents.

DAVIS, N. and HEIMLER, E. (1967) 'An experiment in the assessment of social function', *The Medical Officer*, 3052, **117**, no. 3, 31–2. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A small group of adults aged 30 to 45 who had been in Dr Barnardo's Homes as children were compared with several other groups on a scale assessing social function. They achieved slightly poorer scores than normal controls, but higher scores than people being helped by Mental Health Departments, Family Service Units, and the Probation Service,

2. Child Care: general

BAKWIN, H. (1949) 'Emotional deprivation in infants', *Journal of Paediatrics*, **35**, 512.

A general review of paediatric literature on the subject up till 1949.

BOWLBY, J. (1951) 'The effects of deprivation in infancy and some means of preventing it', *Proceedings of the 2nd Annual Conference of the Association of Children's Officers*. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A summary of points from the author's *Maternal care and mental health;* emphasising that 'to take a child of under seven years from his own home is as serious a step as a major surgical operation'.

BOWLBY, J. (1951) *Maternal care and mental health*. Geneva (World Health Organisation: Monograph Series, No. 2). 194 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A classic work in child welfare: review of research on maternal deprivation, and recommendations for better substitute care.

BOWLEY, A. H. (1951) *Child care: a handbook on the care of the child deprived of normal home life*. Livingstone, Edinburgh. 203 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A classic textbook.

BOWLBY, J. (1953) 'Some pathological processes set in train by early mother-child separation', *Journal of Mental Science*, **99**, 265–72.

One of the author's most important papers on child development, illustrated by case material from hospitals and children's institutions.

CASTLE, M. (1953) 'Casework and child care', *Child Care*, **8**, no. 3, 91–94.

The author discusses the role of the social worker in child care.

CRYSTAL, D. (1953) 'What keeps us from giving children what we know they need?', *Social Service Review*, **27**, no. 2, 136–43.

The author points out the low standards of substitute care at the time of writing, and the low status that fostering enjoys. Research on methods of professionalising care is suggested.

GLICKMAN, E. (1953) 'The planned return of a placed child to own family', *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, **23**, no. 4, 834–47.

A detailed case study.

ROBERTSON, J. (1953) 'Some responses of young children to loss of maternal care', *Nursing Times*, **49**, 382–6. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

An analysis of the meaning of separation to young children, based on the research of Bowlby and his associates and written for hospital staff.

STONE, S. (1953) 'Children without roots', *Social Service Review*, **27**, no. 2, 144–52.

A perceptive discussion of identity confusion in those children in care who have few or no family ties.

BRILL, K. (1954) 'Back home. The duties of Children's Committees under sub-section 1 (3) of the Children Act 1948', *Proceedings of Fifth Annual Conference of the Association of Children's Officers*. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Practical ways of restoring children to their homes whenever possible.

FREUD, A. and DANN, S. (1954) 'An experiment in group upbringing', in *Readings in child development*, New York; and also *Psychoanalytic Study of the Child*, 1951, **6**, 127–68.

A description of the behaviour of six young children brought to a residential nursery in England after living together since infancy in Tereszin concentration camp. The children were disturbed, but not delinquent or psychotic, and showed intense group loyalty.

GERARD, M. W. and DUKETTE, R. (1954) 'Techniques for preventing separation trauma in child placement', *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, **24**, no. 1, 111–26.

A description of an agency's very gradual methods of moving a placed child to a new home with the minimum of distress.

SPITZ, R. A. (1954) 'Unhappy and fatal outcomes of emotional deprivation and stress in infancy', in Galdston, I., ed., *Beyond the germ theory*. Health Education Council.

A brief account of Spitz's study of Foundling Home children (see p. 95) in the context of a Conference on the physical effects of deprivation and stress.

BOWLBY, J. (1955) 'Mother-child separation', in Soddy, K., ed., *Mental health and infant development*. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A brief paper on separation, presented at an International Seminar on mental health.

BUXBAUM, E. (1955) 'The problem of separation and the feeling of identity', *Child Welfare*, **34**, no. 9, 8–15.

A careful discussion of one of the major problems in providing good substitute homes for children.

CHARNLEY, J. (1955) *The art of child placement*. University of Minneapolis Press. 265 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Covers casework with young and older children, foster parents and natural parents. Fully illustrated with case histories.

FORD, D. (1955) *The deprived child and the community*. Constable, London. 226 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

For both professional and lay readers, a detailed account of all aspects of substitute care for children, applicable up to the date of publication.

GELINIER-ORTIGUES, M. C. and AUBRY, J. (1955) 'Maternal deprivation, psychogenic deafness and pseudo-retardation', in Caplan, G., ed., *Emotional problems of early childhood*. New York.

A case history of a child who at $1\frac{1}{2}$ years had been in 14 foster homes, was wrongly diagnosed as deaf and retarded, and was approaching normality after receiving therapy at the age of $2\frac{1}{2}$.

GOLDFARB, W. (1955) 'Emotional and intellectual consequences of psychological deprivation in infancy: a revaluation', in Hoch, P. and Zubin, J., eds., *Psychopathology of childhood*, New York.

A review (valid up to the date of publication) by a pioneer in the study of maternal deprivation.

PINNEAU, S. R. (1955) 'The infantile disorders of hospitalism and anaclitic depression', *Psychological Bulletin*, **52**, 429–62.

A criticism of some of Spitz's findings (see p. 95).

WINNICOTT, C. (1955) 'Casework techniques in the child care services', *Case Conference*, January, and *Social Casework*, **36**, 3–13, and in *Child care and social work*, Codicote Press, 1964.

Three aspects of casework in the child care service are discussed: the adjustment of casework to real factors in the environment, the nature of the professional relationship, and the appropriate techniques for working with children, foster parents and natural parents.

GORDON, H. L. (1956) *Casework services for children.* Houghton Mifflin, Boston. 493 pp.

A detailed American textbook for social workers. All forms of child care are discussed and illustrated by case material.

GROSBARD, H. (1956) 'Administration of social casework services for Youth Aliyah groups' (Title translated from Hebrew), *Dapim*, April, pp. 25–7.

During the past few years specialisation in social casework has spread to the Youth Aliyah Department. Originally the social worker was concerned with the difficult child who could not adjust to the institution. Now his work has become more complex and the stress is rather on accepting children than removing them. One of the aims of the social worker is to find out why parents want to place their child in an institution, and to examine the child's reaction to this. Another important task is to find out which children need more individual treatment.

LAUNAY, C., VERLIAC, F., TRELAT, E. and LYDARD, D. (1956) 'Carence de soins maternels dans la petite enfance' (Deprivation of maternal care in early childhood), *Semaine des Hôpitaux de Paris*, **30**, 537.

A discussion of the effects of separation and institutionalisation as described by Spitz, etc. The authors question the severity of the results of deprivation, and maintain that under-nourishment and neglect, remediable in good institutions, are contributory factors to retardation.

SHMUELI, E. (1956) 'Classifying children and counselling teachers within Youth Aliyah' (title translated from Hebrew), *Ofakim*, pp. 175–80.

The need for treatment of mentally disturbed children within the Youth Aliyah organisation has increased with the mass immigration of youth. Children are first classified by a professional team including a psychiatrist, social case worker and clinical psychologist at Ramath-Madassa, who administer the Goodenough test and observe children's behaviour in the group. In general, the team does not treat the children but gets information about their problems from teachers and supervises the teachers' own work with children.

SODDY, K. (1956) 'The prevention of break-up of families', *Royal Society of Health Journal*, **76**, no. 6, 279–84.

The author discusses the causes of family disintegration, both personal and social, and stresses the need for primary prevention rather than first-aid.

GLICKMAN, E. (1957) *Child placement through clinically oriented casework*, Columbia University Press. 448 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

An advanced reference work covering: diagnosis at intake, classification of parents, types of placement, pre-placement work, casework with foster parents, termination of placement, after-care.

KOHN, C. (1957) 'A chapter on the placement of children' (title translated from Hebrew), *Saad*, Vol. 1, pp. 113–15.

The placement centre for children was founded by Mrs Henrietta Szold in 1934 for children from Nazi Germany whose parents were forced to stay in Europe. The author describes the various stages of its development in the 1940's and the kindness with which children were accepted by the Yishuv and its institutions. Some were placed with relatives; some in professional families; for a nominal payment some were settled in Moshavim centres where they were placed with families. Problems of absorption were created which social workers tried to solve by individual and group counselling. The author comes to the conclusion that placement in families in agricultural settlements was the best solution at that time. A special problem was caused by ill and feeble-minded children who were placed directly with foster families. It is emphasised that the empirical planning conditioned by those times of emergency has passed, and its place has been taken by a more systematic and professional method.

PRINGLE, M. L. KELLMER (1957) 'The educational needs of deprived children', *Child Care*, **11**, 4–9, and in *Deprivation and Education*, Longmans, London, 1965. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

The link between the emotional deprivation and educational retardation of many children in care is outlined, and recommendations made for remedial help and teaching.

ROSE, G. (1957) 'Co-ordinating Committees', *Case Conference*, **4**, nos. 2–4, 41–7, 75–8, 111–14.

A detailed description of the organisation, aims and functions of Co-ordinating Committees and their value in preventing the breakdown of problem families.

WILSON, A. (1957) *Progress in child care*. National Children's Home, London. 199 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

An account of the progress made in the care of deprived children up to the date of writing, with special reference to voluntary societies and to the development of training.

BALLS, J. (1958) *Where love is*. Gollancz, London. 224 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A description of the work of her profession by a Child Care Officer, illustrated with case material.

JACKA, A. (1958) *Ten years. Echoes from the first decade of Child Care*, 1947–1956. Epworth Press, London.

A collection of non-technical articles from the official journal of the National Council of Voluntary Child Care Organisations, representing discussions on child care between 1947 and 1957.

ALT, H. and E. (1959) *Russia's children: a first report on child welfare in the Soviet Union*. New York, Bookman Associates. 240 pp.

An introductory report on all aspects of child welfare in the U.S.S.R.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA (1959) *Child welfare as a field of social work practice*. 32 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A definition of child welfare tasks and requirements prepared by the League in conjunction with the United States Children's Bureau.

CLARKE, A. D. and CLARKE, A. M. (1959) 'Recovery from the effects of deprivation', *Acta Psychologica*, **16**, 137–44.

The authors refer to their previous studies demonstrating that apparently feeble-minded adults who had suffered early deprivation could increase their I.Q. by at least 16 points in favourable conditions, suggesting that early deprivation plays a large part in backwardness and that the effects are not entirely irreversible in younger adults.

EASTON, R. T. H. (1959) 'Preventive casework in Children's Departments, Parts I and II', *Case Conference*, **5**, no. 8, 211–13; and **6**, no. 5, 125–9.

A practical description of the work of a Child Care Officer who specialises in preventive casework. The author mentions the problem of confidentiality; giving material assistance; the role of Co-ordinating Committees.

HEYWOOD, J. S. (1959) *Children in care*. Routledge and Kegan Paul, London. 255 pp.; reprinted 1965. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A historical survey of the care of the deprived child in England.

PRO JUVENTUTE (1959) 'Enfants placés—Bambini collocati—Pflegekinder', *Pro Juventute*, **40**, nos. 2–3, special number, pp. 69–177. Bibliography pp. 174–7, text in French, German and Italian.

An issue of this trilingual Swiss publication is devoted to a description of services for children in Switzerland.

RISLER, M. (1959) *Le problème de l'enfant placé sous la tutelle de l'État en France métropolitaine, de 1945 à 1955* (The problem of the child in public care in metropolitan France, 1945–55), Librarie Sabri, Paris, 351 pp. Available at the Library of the International Bureau of Education, Geneva.

A comprehensive sociological and statistical survey of the public care of children in France up to the time of publication. Tables, bibliography and extracts from legislation.

BOARD, H. C. (1960) 'The care of coloured children', *Annual Review of the Residential Child Care Association*, **8**.

A general discussion by the Head of the Admission Department of a voluntary society.

BOWLBY, J. (1960) 'Grief and mourning in infancy and early childhood', *Psychoanalytic Study of the Child*, **15**, 9–52.

In a technical paper for psychoanalysts, the author states his view that reactions to separation and removal from home are similar, even in very young children, to true grief as observed in adults; and that separation is an event of high pathogenic potential.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA (1960) *Children in need of parents*. 22 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A simplified account of the findings of Maas and Engler in their book of the same name (see p. 66).

CLARKE, A. D. and CLARKE, A. M. (1960) 'Some recent advances in the study of early deprivation', *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, **1**, 26–36.

Different types of deprivation are distinguished, and a case history of partial reversal of extreme deprivation given.

HASTINGS, S. (1960) 'Has the Children Act proved a failure?', *Child Care*, **14**, no. 4, 77–8.

The author urges far more intensive and unified preventive work. Child care statistics are quoted.

INTERNATIONAL CHILD WELFARE REVIEW (1960) 'Co-ordinating official and voluntary services for the benefit of children', *International Child Welfare Review* (special issue), Geneva, **14**, 2.

Ten articles on co-ordination in the following countries: Australia, Finland, Great Britain, Greece, India, New Zealand, Pakistan, Portugal, U.S.A. and Yugoslavia.

LANGHOLM, M. and BOLIN, L. (1960) 'Child welfare in the Scandinavian countries', *International Child Welfare Review*, **14**, no. 1, 3.

Two articles: one on child welfare and protection in Norway, and one on Sweden.

LITTNER, N. (1960) 'The child's need to repeat his past: some implications for placement', *Social Service Review*, **34**, no. 2, 128–48. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

One aspect of the behaviour of the disturbed child in care is examined: his compulsion to act out situations which have been painful to him, and to make adults caring for him behave as his parents did.

MORIN, L. (1960) 'L'intervention de la travailleuse familiale peut-elle éviter les placement d'enfants?' (Can placement of children be avoided by family workers?), *Informations Sociales*, Paris, **14**, no. 7, 12–16. Available at the Library of the International Union for Child Welfare, Geneva.

The author, director of a home help service in Paris, describes workers' training. 30 students a year are trained in several subjects, including child psychology, and pass an examination. Selection is careful, and a number of applicants are rejected. The author concludes that France needs a much larger number of such workers.

MORRISON, A. C. L. and BANWELL, L. G. (1960) *Clarke Hall and Morrison's Law relating to children and young persons*. Butterworths, London. 723 pp., with third (cumulative) supplement to sixth edition, by L. G. Banwell and J. R. Nicol, 1964, 273 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

The text of all relevant legislation in force at the time of publication is arranged in five sections, with occasional notes by the compilers. Brought up to date with cumulative supplements.

NOKES, P. (1960) 'Purpose and efficiency in humane social institutions', *Human Relations*, **13**, no. 2, 141–55.

A searching analysis of attitudes peculiar to philanthropical work. The author argues that good intentions may take the place of efficiency; and that ambitious goals are normally set by those who have no responsibility for implementing them.

PAULL, J. E. (1960) 'An agency cleans house', *Child Welfare*, **39**, no. 10, 18–21.

Shocked by the findings of Maas and Engler about their community (see *Children in need of parents*, p. 66), one American welfare agency made positive changes in plans and policy. The rate of children going home or being adopted was doubled.

SMILANSKY, M., WEINTRAUB, S. and HANEGBI, Y. (1960) *Child and youth welfare in Israel*. Henrietta Szold Foundation for Child and Youth Welfare, Jerusalem. 334 pages. (In English.)

All aspects of child welfare are described: health, nutrition, education, recreation, vocational guidance, preventive child care, institutional and foster care, day care, treatment of the handicapped and delinquent, legislation, staff training. The predominance of institutional over foster care is emphasised. 3·7% of the child population was in care in 1958, nearly half under the auspices of Youth Aliyah; this figure includes some boarding pupils in agricultural and vocational schools. Preventive work to avoid placement is increasing. Basic statistics are appended, and functions of governmental, local and voluntary welfare agencies defined.

WIMPERIS, V. (1960) *The unmarried mother and her child*. Allen and Unwin, London. 397 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A very comprehensive survey, relevant to the background of a large number of children in care.

BOWLBY, J. (1961) 'Childhood mourning and its implications for psychiatry', *American Journal of Psychiatry*, **118**, 481–98.

A summary of the evidence about the effects of childhood separation on personality development.

BOWLBY, J. (1961) 'Separation anxiety: a critical review of the literature', *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, **1**, 251–69.

A detailed review and bibliography valid up to the date of publication.

BRIMLOW, M. I. (1961) 'Greek to me. A traveller's tale', *Child Care*, **15**, no. 3, 113–17. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

An account of some aspects of child care in Greece by a Children's Officer visiting the country on an exchange scheme.

CECCALDI, D. (1961) 'L'effort de planification dans le domaine de L'équipement social'. (Planning for the field of social services), *Informations Sociales*, Paris, **15**, nos. 10–11, 127–44. Available at the Library of the International Union for Child Welfare, Geneva.
A plan for reorganisation and research in the social services in France by the Sous-Directeur of Public Health and Welfare. Maps and statistical tables included.

CHARNLEY, J. (1961) *An American social worker in Italy*. Minnesota University Press and London University Press. 323 pp.

The experiences of an American child care worker on a six-month professional visit.

DAVID, M. and APPELL, G. (1961) 'Case notes on Monique', in Foss, B. M., ed., *Determinants of Infant Behaviour*, Vol. 1. Methuen, London. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A detailed case study of the successful long-term therapy of a severely deprived child in a French residential nursery.

FIELDS, H. N. (1961) 'Children in need of parents: the legal problems', *Child Welfare*, **40**, no. 2, 22–5.

A discussion of possibilities of terminating parental rights in order to make abandoned children legally free for adoption.

FOSS, B. M., ed. (1961) *Determinants of infant behaviour*, Vol. 1. Methuen, London. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A series of discussions held during a study group on child development. Contains papers on institutionalised infants (see pp. 110, 111) among other research material. Participants include Geneviève Appell, J. A. Ambrose, John Bowlby, Myriam David, Harry Harlow, Harriet Rheingold, Joyce Robertson and others.

KAHAN, B. J. (1961) Prevention and rehabilitation', *Proceedings of 12th Annual Conference of the Association of Children's Officers*. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A detailed historical and practical survey.

MORRIS, C. (1961) *Social casework in Great Britain.* Faber, London. 231 pp. (Chapter 8: 'Child Care', by Clare Britton.) Available at N.B.C.C.C.

An outline of the tasks and skills of the child care worker.

PENNYPACKER, E. K. (1961) 'Reaching decisions to initiate court action to free children in care for adoption', *Child Welfare*, **40**, no. 10, 11–15.

A consideration of the problems involved in severing parental rights when reunion of child and parents is permanently impracticable.

PUZIN, M. (1961) *Guide pratique pour la sauvegarde de la jeunesse* (A practical guide to child protection). Editions Fleurus, Paris. 262 pp. Available at the Library of the International Bureau of Education, Geneva.

A thorough survey for professional workers of French legislation and care for child victims of neglect and cruelty. Bibliography, extracts from legal codes.

YARROW, L. J. (1961) 'Maternal deprivation: toward an empirical and conceptual re-evaluation', *Psychological Bulletin*, **58**, 459; and in *Maternal Deprivation*, Child Welfare League of America, 1962. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

An authoritative review with full bibliography.

AINSWORTH, M. D. (1962) 'Reversible and irreversible effects of maternal deprivation on intellectual development,' in *Maternal Deprivation.* Child Welfare League of America. 72 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A comprehensive and critical research review. The tentative conclusion is that deprivation at certain sensitive periods may permanently retard verbal and conceptual functions and that emotional damage is even more resistant to reversibility.

AINSWORTH, M. D. *et al.* (1962) *Deprivation of maternal care: a re-assessment of its effects.* World Health Organisation, Geneva. 165 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A symposium containing articles by contributors from varied professional disciplines: Dane G. Prugh, Robert Harlow, R. G. Andry, Margaret Mead, Barbara Wootton, S. Lebovici; summing-up by Mary D. Ainsworth. Full bibliographies.

BOEHM, B. (1962) 'An assessment of family adequacy in protective cases', *Child Welfare*, **41**, no. 1, 10–16.

A description of an ongoing research plan for studying criteria used in making decisions to remove a child from home.

BRILL, K. (1962) *Children, not cases*. National Children's Home, London. 124 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

An experienced Children's Officer sets out in a straightforward way the considerations and principles which should guide the child care worker in his dealings with children, parents, foster parents and colleagues.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA (1962) *Changing needs and practices in child welfare*, by N. Littner. 76 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Contains papers on the child's need to repeat his past, on evaluating foster families, services to parents of placed children, the role of the supervisor in a placement agency, and child welfare classics.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA (1962) *Maternal deprivation*. 72 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A collection of papers by Yarrow, Ainsworth, and Glaser (see pp. 233, 248).

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA (1962) *Working with the child and his parents*. 23 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Contains two papers: 'The casework process in the child's own home', by Mary E. Rall, and 'Treatment after placement', by Esther Glickman.

DYSON, D. M. (1962) *No two alike*. Allen and Unwin, London. 144 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

An introduction to child care for students and lay readers.

EISENBERG, L. (1962) 'If not now, when?', *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, **32**, no. 5, 781–91. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

An urgent plea that psychiatrists dedicate themselves to the neglected aspects and causes of mental illness: poverty, prejudice, inadequate welfare provisions. The vicious circle of maladjustment and poor substitute care is stressed.

HELLMAN, I. (1962) 'Hampstead nursery follow-up studies: 1. Sudden separation and its effect followed over 20 years', *Psychoanalytic Study of the Child*, **17**, 159–75.

A detailed case study of a child placed in a residential nursery in early childhood, later reunited with her family and followed up into adulthood, demonstrating that under optimal conditions even traumatic separations can be experienced without permanent damage.

HEYWOOD, J. (1962) 'Separation, deprivation and treatment', *Child Care*, **16**, no. 1, 5–9.

The author discusses four aspects of child care work: preventive casework, separation used as treatment, treatment of child, and family restoration.

JETER, H. (1962) *Services in public and voluntary child welfare programs.* United States Children's Bureau, Washington, D.C. 126 pp. Publication No. 396. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A statistical and factual review of welfare services in the United States in 1960. 526,000 children were estimated to be receiving welfare services, of which about 19% were in institutions, 30% in foster homes, 9% in adoptive homes and 41% receiving aid in their own homes. 52 tables.

KAMMERER, G. M. (1962) *British and American child welfare services. A comparative study in administration.* Wayne State University Press, Detroit. 473 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A detailed comparative study. Statutes, judicial decisions, reports, training materials, interviews, etc. from selected British Children's Departments and three American States were systematically studied. The author compares political and ideological backgrounds, legislation, national and local organisation, and personnel administration, in the two countries. She criticises the American use of welfare administrative posts for political spoils, and the lack of specialised training for higher welfare administration in Britain.

KASTELL, J. (1962) *Casework in child care.* Routledge and Kegan Paul, London. 306 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

The book describes all aspects of child care work and is illustrated with three detailed case histories.

ROSE, J. (1962) 'A re-evaluation of the concept of separation for child welfare', *Child Welfare*, **41**, no. 10, 444–58.

The author discusses cultural factors—lowered mortality rate, urban conditions, family breakdown—which are raising the numbers of

handicapped and disturbed children. Welfare agencies are therefore overwhelmed with emergency cases which must be avoided by preventive planning.

TIMMS, N. (1962) *Casework in the child care service.* Butterworths, London. 171 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A practical handbook for professional workers, illustrated with case material.

TRASLER, G. (1962) 'The consequences of separation', *Mental Health,* **21**, no. 3, 98–103.

A discussion of the different ways in which separation affects younger and older children; with detailed suggestions for meeting the needs of separated children and avoiding permanent damage.

WINNICOTT, C. (1962) 'Casework and agency function', *Case Conference,* **8**, no. 7, 178–84, and in *Child Care and Social Work,* London, 1964. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

An analysis of the way casework is practised according to the function of the social agency.

WINNICOTT, C. (1962) 'Casework and the residential treatment of children', *Accord,* **7**, no. 4, 4–14, and in *Child Care and Social Work,* London, 1964. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

An analysis of the current roles of social worker and houseparent: the houseparents to provide daily care and attention, and the Child Care Officers to plan, integrate and give objective support.

CHILD WELFARE (1963) 'Protective service issue', *Child Welfare,* **42**, 3. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Contains articles on: the identification of cases of neglect and assault, the strain on the social worker who handles them, characteristics of parents who assault their children, and legal aspects of child neglect.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA (1963) *Group method and services in child welfare,* by G. Konopka, *et al.*, 27 pp.

Four articles reprinted from *Child Welfare.*

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA (1963) *The neglected battered-child syndrome.* 49 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Three articles on the legal, medical and psychological aspects of severe abuse of children.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA (1963) *New approaches to Homemaker Service.* 20 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Three papers reprinted from *Child Welfare* on the use of home helps to avert placement of children.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA (1963) *Homemaker Service.* 28 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Six articles on the use of home helpers to support families in emergency and avert placement of children.

GOLDSCHMIED, E. (1963) 'The pre-school child in care', *Annual Review of the Residential Child Care Association,* **11**, 61–4. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A reminder of the special needs of babies and young children. The author recommends that more attention be focused on this group; that residential nurseries be less separate from other forms of care, and that child care workers lend support to social reforms which will keep more small children out of care.

JETER, H. (1963) *Children, problems and services in child welfare programs.* U.S. Children's Bureau publication No. 403, Washington, D.C. 291 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A nationwide statistical analysis of welfare services for children in the United States in and before 1961, covering: reasons for provision of welfare service, kinds of service, characteristics of children served, agency procedures. Sampling methodology is described. 51 tables.

KAHN, A. J. (1963) *Planning community services for children in trouble.* Columbia University Press, New York. 540 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A detailed examination of all social services for children in the United States, and a proposal for their replanning and integration. Mainly concerned with delinquent and neglected children, but with its emphasis on prevention and co-ordination is relevant to work with children in care.

LOMAX-SIMPSON, J. (1963) 'Continuity of concern', *Annual Review of the Residential Child Care Association*, **11**, 25–30.

Suggestions as to how continuity of contact can be maintained for children in each type of placement.

MADISON, B. (1963) 'Welfare services for children in the Soviet Union, 1945–1963', *Child Welfare*, **42**, no. 8, 319–30.

A survey of every kind of welfare provision for children in the U.S.S.R.

PHILP, A. F. (1963) *Family failure*, Faber, London, 311 pp. (Chapter 10: 'The care and treatment of the children'.) Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A study of 129 problem families helped by the Family Service Units, illustrated with case histories.

STAVER, N. (1963) 'Children in foster care and their freedom to learn', *Social Casework*, **44**, no. 9, 531–4.

An analysis of why the child in care is often handicapped in learning: he may come from a family of low achievement; he knows that his parents are uninterested in his schooling; he has had to repress memories and curiosity; and he is at a social disadvantage among other school children.

STEVENSON, O. (1963) 'Reception into care: its meaning for all concerned', *Case Conference*, **10**, no. 4, 110–114.

An examination of the deeper feelings of children, parents and child care workers about the 'infinitely complicated process of separation from home'.

STEVENSON, O. (1963) 'Co-ordination reviewed', *Case Conference*, **9**, no. 8, 208–12.

Practical analysis of the difficulties arising at co-ordinating committees: the clash of aims and loyalties between child care worker, Probation Officer, Health Visitor, etc., and the need for skilled committee leadership.

STROUD, J. (1963) 'Children at risk', *New Society*, 12th September, p. 14.

The author points out that while the responsibilities of the Child Care Officer have increased, training schemes are currently geared to produce less than one-third of the number needed, and that this must lower the standard of service.

WOLINS, M. (1963) 'Some theory and practice in child care: a cross-cultural view', *Child Welfare*, **42**, no. 8, 369–77. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A well-documented account of child care practices in other countries, with special reference to Israel and the U.S.S.R., where institutional care is preferred.

ANTROBUS, P. (1964) 'Coloured children in care—a special problem group?', *Case Conference*, **11**, no. 2, 39–45.

The differing backgrounds and problems of coloured children are discussed; contact with parents, and talks and books about the country of origin, are recommended for coloured children in care.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA (1964) *Caseworker and judge in neglect cases*. 31 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.
Articles by two judges and the Secretary of a Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA (1964) *Institution or foster family—a century of debate*, by M. Wolins and I. Piliavin. 62 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A review of a debate which has been argued for at least a century, and a plea for research to replace argument. Full bibliography.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA (1964) *Standards for Homemaker Service for children*. 31 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

The standards, based on current practice, professional literature and discussion, cover planning, administration, casework and the function of the homemaker (home help).

FALKENBERG, E. (1964) 'Das Pflege- und Adoptivkind im Jugendwohlfahrts- und Familienrecht' (Foster and adopted children, and welfare and family legislation). *Nachrichtendienst des deutschen Vereins für öffentliche und private Fürsorge*, **44**, no. 3, 93–107. Available at the Nationaal Bureau voor Kinderbescherming, the Hague.

A detailed explanation of the new regulations introduced in 1961, their application in the member states of the Federal Republic, and the practical directives with regard to their execution. The function and role of the various institutions and specialists are made clear and also their interaction.

GREVE, J. (1964) *London's homeless*. Occasional papers on Social Administration, No. 10. Bell, 76 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

The background to part of London's child care problem: information from field surveys, case records, and local authorities is used, and the work of the Children's Department mentioned.

LOMAX-SIMPSON, J. (1964) 'Practical ways of fulfilling the needs of the child in care', *Case Conference*, **10**, no. 7, 194–9. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A child psychiatrist describes how she keeps open house for children in care and leaving care, and provides continuing friendship over many years by exchange of gifts and letters.

PACKMAN, J. (1964) 'The size of the child care problem', *Proceedings of the 15th Annual Conference of the Association of Children's Officers*. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Some of the findings of the study described in greater detail in *Children in care* (see p. 232) and *Variations in the number of children in care throughout England and Wales* (p. 81).

SANTS, H. J. (1964) 'Genealogical bewilderment in children with substitute parents', *British Journal of Medical Psychology*, **37**, no. 2, 133–41. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

An analysis of the particular confusion observed in children who lack knowledge about one or both parents, and a plea for fuller information about their origins for such children.

TIMMS, N. (1964) *Social casework: principles and practice*. Routledge and Kegan Paul, London. 248 pp. (Chapter 7: 'Casework and child care'.) Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A textbook for social work training courses, fully illustrated by case material.

U.S. CHILDREN'S BUREAU (1964) *Homemaker services. History and bibliography*, by M. Morlock. 116 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A 93-page bibliography includes references to every aspect of the work of domiciliary helpers, including care of children who would otherwise be taken into public care.

WINNICOTT, C. (1964) *Child care and social work*. Codicote Press, London. 96 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

In these six collected papers the author, drawing on experience as both social worker and psychoanalyst, discusses casework in child care; the roles of caseworker and residential worker; how to understand and accept the feelings of children in care; the effect of agency function on casework; the development of insight in social work students; and foster homes.

WINNICOTT, C. (1964) 'Child care and society', in *Child care and social work*. Codicote Press. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

The author describes five types of foster home: semi-adoptive homes, homes where a foster child is wanted as companion to parents' own child, the 'grandmotherly' foster home, the family that has 'room for one more', and the professional foster home where fostering provides a livelihood.

WINNICOTT, C. (1964) 'Communicating with children', *Child Care*, **18**, no. 3, 85–93.

A perceptive discussion of how Child Care Officers can find many ways—simple or complex—of communicating with children in their charge.

WINNICOTT, C. (1964) 'Face to face with children', in *Child Care and Social Work*. Codicote Press. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

The author discusses how the child care worker can understand, accept and communicate with the disturbed feelings of children in care.

WYNN, M. (1964) 'The Barnavardsman. The Swedish guardian of fatherless children', *Child Care*, **18**, no. 2, 57–60. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A child welfare guardian is automatically appointed for fatherless children in Sweden. Her duties, and other Swedish child welfare provisions, are briefly described.

WYNN, M. (1964) *Fatherless families*. Michael Joseph, London. 212 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

The large proportion of children in care from one-parent families is stressed. The author recommends a Fatherless Child Allowance, and special accommodation for such children and their mothers.

YOUNG, L. (1964) *Wednesday's children. A study of child neglect and abuse.* McGraw-Hill, New York. 195 pp. Available N.B.C.C.C.

Case records from several areas in the United States were analysed for this study. Types of neglect and abuse, from moderate to severe, are described together with the social and familial background. Suggestions are made for protection and prevention.

BOWLBY, J. (1965) *Child care and the growth of love.* Pelican, first printed 1953. 254 pp.

A classic book revised and brought up to date. An abridgement of the W.H.O. Monograph.

CANZIANI, W. (1965) 'Die verschiedene Formen der Fremdplazierung von Kindern' (Varying forms of foster placement and substitute care of children), *Pro Juventute* (Switzerland), **46**, nos. 7, 8, 9 (11), 439–48. Available at the Nationaal Bureau voor Kinderbescherming, the Hague.

Different types of placement for children in Switzerland, and the appropriate Federal and Cantonal regulations. Adoption, foster homes, institutions, differentiated according to objective, categories of children, administrative position, topographical data, etc. Children's villages, which occur in a number of different forms, are dealt with separately (internationally oriented survey).

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA (1965) *Standards for child protective service*, first printed 1960. 58 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Standards based on a survey of practice, literature, and consultation; to be used as an educational tool and a yardstick for planning.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA (1965) *Some traumatic effects of separation and placement*, by N. Littner. First printed 1956. 32 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

An account of the child's experience of separation, its after-effects and ways in which it can be modified.

DONNISON, D. (1965) *Social policy and admistration.* Allen and Unwin, London. 270 pp.

The book begins with a brief history of social administration, and then presents eight case studies of the administration of local social services. Chapters 8 and 10 describe the development of casework in a Children's Department and a crisis in a Canadian Children's Aid Society.

Foss, B. M., ed. (1965) *Determinants of infant behaviour*, Vol. III. Methuen, London. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A series of discussions during a study group on child development. Contains papers on institutionalised infants (see p. 235) among other research material. Participants include Geneviève Appell, J. A. Ambrose, John Bowlby, Myriam David, Harry Harlow, Harriet Rheingold, Joyce Robertson and others.

Jenkins, R. (1965) 'Caring for coloured children', *Annual Review of the Residential Child Care Association*, **13**, 91–6.

The author examines the attitudes of different immigrant groups in Britain to child rearing and to the Child Care Service. Ways of helping parents and children are suggested.

Lange, U. (1965) 'Das alleinstehende Kind und seine Versorgung' (The care of the parentless child), *Psychologische Praxis*, Basel, **38**, 87 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Contains a history of the care of the parentless child, discussion of the essentials for children's emotional development, care in foster families, adoptive families and children's communities, outline of the relations between child and substitute parents, legal aspects of child care, and full bibliography of German child care literature.

Menday, R. P. (1965) 'Vocational and social training of the deprived child', *Annual Review of the Residential Child Care Association*, **13**, 58–73.

The author criticises present provisions for adolescents in care and asks for more psychiatric help, help with physical handicaps, long-term planning and after-care, and information given to the child about his background. 'Half-way houses' for those leaving care are recommended, and well-equipped boarding schools for children in care between 11 and 18.

Parker, J. (1965) *Local health and welfare services*. Allen and Unwin, London. 188 pp. (Chapter 3: 'Children's services'.) Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A history of the legal and administrative provisions for child welfare since the Children Act, 1948.

Pringle, M. L. Kellmer (1965) *Deprivation and education*. Longmans, London. 311 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

The social, emotional and intellectual development of children in care is traced in a series of linked research studies carried out between 1957 and 1962 (see abstracts on pp. 141–164).

PROVENCE, S. (1965) 'Disturbed personality development in infancy: a comparison of two inadequately nurtured infants', *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, **2**, no. 2, 149–170.

Detailed case study of the first 15 months of two infants experiencing different kinds of deprivation: one reared at home (a subject in the Yale longitudinal study), and one in a Home (studied in *Infants in institutions*, see p. 113). Follow-up of the institutionalised child suggested that early close attachment to a nurse helped his later development.

RASMUSSEN, H. C. (1965) 'Child care workers in Denmark', *Child Welfare*, **44**, no. 5, 262–65. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

The three alternative training courses for child care workers are described.

SCHIFF, E. J., MEIER, E. G. and BURIAN, W. A. (1965) 'The impact on children of new treatment of adult mental illness—a symposium', *Child Welfare*, **44**, no. 6, 316–20.

The close connection between the child's and the ill parent's state of mind is discussed with suggestions for helping the child; questions are posed about legal and social measures. 13% of one agency's caseload were in care because of a parent's mental illness, and the children appeared to be particularly maladjusted.

STROUD, J. (1965) *An introduction to the child care service*. Longmans, London. 216 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

An up-to-date introductory handbook presenting a clear and comprehensive account of the service.

VEILLARD-CYBULSKA, H. (1965) 'Aspects of child welfare in the People's Democracies. I. U.S.S.R.' *International Child Welfare Review*, **19**, no. 3, 101–32. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A review of all aspects of child welfare in the U.S.S.R. and a full bibliography.

WINNICOTT, D. W. (1965) 'The deprived child and how he can be compensated for loss of family life', in *The family and individual development*. Tavistock Publications, London. 181 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A leading psychoanalyst discusses the feelings and potential development of the child in care, in particular his need for the continuity provided by possessions and a reliable family history.

DAVIES, J. W. D. (1966) 'Australian journey. Parts I, II, III', *Child Care News*, **54**, 3–8, **55**, 2–10; **56**, 3–15. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Observations on social welfare—child care in particular—in Hong Kong and in Australia, made during a travelling fellowship.

GOLDBERG, E. M. (1966) 'Working with the family', *Proceedings of the 17th Annual Conference of the Association of Children's Officers*. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

How and why social workers are becoming interested in treatment of the whole family, with its own structure, roles, and ways of communication; and an analysis of the Child Care Officer's work with families, particularly when one child is used as a scapegoat.

GRIFFITH, J. A. G. (1966) *Central departments and local authorities*. Allen and Unwin, London. (Chapter 6; 'Children's services'.) 573 pp.

An analysis of the relations between central and local government in the child welfare field, and of variations in attitudes and pressures. Defects are analysed and recommendations made.

JEHU, D. (1966) 'Empirical and theoretical developments in the study of discontinuous parental love', *Social Work*, **23**, no. 1, 8–16. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A review of research on the effects of childhood separation and deprivation, with particular reference to the work of Bowlby and of Gewirtz. Extensive bibliography.

JEHU, D. (1966) 'Discontinuity of parental care and crime: a statistical analysis', unpublished. 54 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A review article for reference, with bibliography of 95 items and 36 pages of tables. The author concludes that there is a significant association between childhood separation and crime, but that the many contributing variables have not been identified.

LOMAX-SIMPSON, J. (1966) 'Further ideas on ways of sharing one's life with the child in care', *Case Conference*, **12**, no. 10, 349–53. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A further account of how the author provides continuity for children in care by giving them letters, presents and access to her house for visits.

MAAS, H. S. (1966) *Five fields of social service*. National Association of Social Workers, New York. (Chapter 3: 'Child Welfare', by David Fanshel.) Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A comprehensive research review and bibliography.

MOSS, S. Z. (1966) 'How children feel about being placed away from home', *Children*, **13**, no. 4, 153–7. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A restatement of the feelings of separated children about their parents, and of ways for social agencies to maintain contact for them with the family, and with facts about their backgrounds.

NATIONAL FEDERATION FOR CHILD WELFARE, THE HAGUE (1966) 'Child care in the Netherlands'. 36 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A brief introductory guide.

PRINGLE, M. L. KELLMER, ed. (1966) *Investment in children. A symposium in positive child care and constructive education*. Longmans, London. 180 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Prevention in child care is considered from the social work, educational, paediatric and psychiatric point of view. Current thought and policy, as well as present-day administration and practice are analysed, and progressive principles of child care are outlined. Consideration is given to the problems arising from the fact that three Government Departments share the major responsibility for children's services.

SHONE, K. (1966) 'Industrial engineering concepts and the child care service', *Case Conference*, **13**, no. 5, 170–4. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

An outline of the possible application to the Child Care Service of methods used to increase efficiency in industry.

LEISSNER, A. (1967) *Family Advice Services. An exploratory study of a sample of such services organised by Children's Departments in England* (Studies in Child Development). Longmans and the National Bureau for Co-operation in Child Care, London.

The role of preventive social work, the goals, functions and problems of Family Advice Services (mainly those run as part of Children's Departments) are examined, and recommendations for future policy and research are made.

PARFITT, J., ed. (1967) *The community's children. A guide for the intelligent layman to long-term residential care.* (Studies in Child Development). Longmans and the National Bureau for Co-operation in Child Care, London. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A symposium written by the members of a joint working party of the Association of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, and the National Bureau. It considers residential care from the standpoint of the children, their parents, the residential and the child care staff.

3. Residential care only

FRANKENSTEIN, C. (1949) 'Observation and recording in Youth Aliyah groups' (title translated from Hebrew), *Megamot*, **1**, no. 1, 26–51.

The observation of children in institutions by instructors and teachers is very important for comparing the normal and the deprived child's behaviour and for co-ordinating their efforts for the special needs of the individual. The author describes the various types of instructor and their different approaches. Some have an empirical attitude, while others are more influenced by their emotions. An ambitious teacher might use observation to increase his influence, and when it is a sublimation for the lack of emotional satisfaction, the result will be out of touch with reality. The author differentiates between diagnostic, therapeutic, scientific and pedagogic observation and analyses them. The youth worker must know his limitations, be well trained, have professional knowledge and a great deal of insight. Various means of recording are described, and the details needed for questionnaires. If the worker is able to see the character of the child as a whole and correlate it with his observations and notes he will succeed in his role.

DAVID, M. and CRÉANGE, F. (1952) 'Les jardins d'enfants dans une collectivité d'enfants separés de leur famille' (Kindergartens in an institution for children separated from their families), *Sauvegarde de l'Enfance*, Paris, **1**, January, pp. 25–32. Available at International Bureau of Education, Geneva and International Union of Child Welfare, Geneva.

As part of the research on separation undertaken in connection with John Bowlby, the authors describe the aggressive or disturbed behaviour in nursery classes for institutionalised children.

ROLAND, Mlle (1952) 'Influence d'une pouponnière de passage sur le développement de l'enfant' (The influence of a short-stay residential nursery on babies' development), *Sauvegarde de l'Enfance*, May/June, pp. 464–78. Available at International Bureau of Education, Geneva.

Retardation in a residential nursery of this date is described. When conditions and staff ratio were improved (1 nurse to 8 infants), the infants improved in motor development, but the author concludes that a residential nursery can never be an adequate environment for infants.

ROUDINESCO, D., DAVID, M. and NICHOLAS, J. (1952) 'Responses of young children to separation from their mothers. I. Observation

of children aged 12–17 months recently separated from their families and living in an institution', *Courrier*, **2**, no. 2, 66–78.

An observational study of young children's distress and their nurses' reactions to it.

ROBERTSON, J. and BOWLBY, J. (1952) 'Responses of young children to separation from their mothers. II. Observations on the sequences of response of children aged 18 to 24 months during the course of separation', *Courrier*, **2**, no. 3, 131–40.

A continuation of the previous paper on children's successive reactions to being placed in institutions, pointing out especially that for their caretakers, 'familiarity diminishes sensitivity'.

KONOPKA, G. (1954) *Group work in the institution—a modern challenge*. Whiteside Inc. and William Morrow, New York. 304 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

The use of group discussion and therapy in institutions of all kinds, including Children's Homes.

AUBRY, J. (1955) 'The effects of lack of maternal care: methods of studying children aged 1 to 3 years, placed in institutions', in Caplan, G., ed., *Emotional problems of early childhood*. Tavistock Publications, London. 544 pp.

A description of clinical methods of assessment of young children at a reception centre in France (see also p. 100).

MINISTRY OF SOCIAL WELFARE, STATE OF ISRAEL (No date) '*Report on institutional care for children in Israel*'. 39 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

An account of the organisation of substitute care for children in Israel.

SHLOMO, M. (1955) 'The problem of artistic creation in institutions' (title translated from Hebrew), *Ofakim*, pp. 137–41.

The author reports a teachers' discussion on children's creativity, dealing chiefly with the question of possible differences between the creativity of children in institutions or Kibbutzim, and those living in towns. It is established that in institutions the children have less opportunity for individualism than at home; but the author states from experience that their artistic work is no less expressive and original. He believes the staff in institutions have an important opportunity to develop children's artistic talent.

CONWAY, E. S. (1956) 'The analysis of the characteristics of "normal" and "disturbed" children in a children's home', *Case Conference*, **3**, 71–81. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A summary of part of the findings of *The institutional care of children*, (see p. 137).

ETZIONI, A. (1956) 'The organisation of educational institutions' (title translated from Hebrew), *Megamot*, **7**, no. 3, 244–54.

An attempt to apply general organisational principles to the specific structure of residential, educational institutions. The author examines the following aspects: selection and training of staff for the Home, school, farm and workshops; relationships between director, staff, children and parents; amount of centralisation in the running of the institution.

MAGDALENA, S. (1956) 'Differenzierung von Fürsorge-Heimen' (Different types of welfare institutions), *Praxis der Kinderpsychologie und Psychiatrie*, April, pp. 97–102. Available at the Nationaal Bureau voor Kinderbescherming, the Hague.

In view of the permanent value of being brought up in a family, especially with regard to the early mother-child relationship, a study was made of different kinds of institutions, and in particular (*a*) Homes which are reception or observation centres; and (*b*) special Homes, such as those for unmarried mothers, disturbed young people, children under the care of the State, etc.

MARAUN, E. (1956) 'Sorgfältige Überleitung der Kinder ins Heim' (The careful introduction of children into an institution), *Unsere Jugend*, August, pp. 344–8. Available at the Nationaal Bureau voor Kinderbescherming, the Hague.

A description of five different cases where the preparation and placing of the child in an institution or foster home was done with great care.

SHAPIRA, R. (1956) 'Education in an institution' (title translated from Hebrew), *Ofakim*, pp. 104–14.

The author gives a comprehensive summary of education during the seventh, eight and ninth school years on the basis of his observations in institutions, and describes the special problems at the onset of puberty. He suggests subjects for study in the political and social sphere related to the interests of adolescents. There may be a need for individual talks with boys of this age to help them with their problems.

SUPER, A. S. (1956) *Alonei Yitzhak: A youth village in Israel.* Études pédagogiques, No. 3. F.I.C.E. (Published with the assistance of U.N.E.S.C.O.) (In English), Jerusalem. 156 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A description of a typical Youth Aliyah children's community, prepared for F.I.C.E. (Fédération Internationale des Communautés d'Enfants) by an objective observer. History, administration, work and play, food and clothing, and training for careers, are all described.

BENTWICH, N. (1957) *Ben-Shemen. A children's village in Israel.* Études pédagogiques, No. 7, Fédération Internationale des Communautés d'Enfants. (Published with the assistance of U.N.E.S.C.O.) (In English), Jerusalem. 104 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A monograph describing a typical Children's Village in Israel, from its foundation in 1927 up to the present time.

BERTOYE, P. (1957) 'Le comportement psychique des nourrissons placés en pouponnière' (The psychological development of infants in residential nurseries), *Annales Pédiatriques*, **38**, 353.

A discussion of the effects of maternal deprivation on institutionalised infants as observed by Spitz and others.

BOURGUET, G. (1957) '*La Fédération des Rayons de Soleil de France. Foyers familiaux*' (The Federation of 'Rayons de Soleil': family Homes). Études pédagogiques, No. 4, Fédération Internationale des Communautés d'Enfants. (Published with the assistance of U.N.E.S.C.O.) Paris. 83 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

One of a series of booklets describing children's communities. The eight federated 'Rayons de Soleil' Homes in France are described. Founded in 1933, they are independently run but supervised by the government departments who send them children (parentless or removed from unfit homes). Each Home is a large country house taking about 30 children of all ages.

TRASLER, G. (1957) 'The effect of institutional care upon emotional development', *Case Conference*, **4**, no. 2, 35–40.

A study of successful and unsuccessful foster placements revealed an association between institutionalisation in infancy and breakdown of placement, particularly of the second placement, which the author considers to be a more critical test of the child's emotional health than the first.

ANTHONY, J. (1958) 'Group therapeutic techniques for residential units', *Case Conference*, **4**, no. 7, 186–93.

A discussion of group therapeutic work for both staff and children in Homes. Possible difficulties are mentioned.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA (1958) *Specialised group care for adolescents*, by Bernhard Scher. 6 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A description of small Homes designed for eight girls between 15 and 18.

CONWAY, E. S. (1958) 'The institutional care of children', *Child Care*, **12**, nos. 1 and 2, 14–15.

A brief synopsis of the thesis of the same name (see p. 137).

CONWAY, E. S. (1958) 'The influence on children of parents, friends and house-parents', *Child Care*, **12**, no. 4, 65–74.

A summary of part of the findings of *The institutional care of children*, (see p. 137)

GMEINER, H. (1958) 'Les villages d'enfants S.O.S. L'idée et sa réalisation' (The S.O.S. Children's Villages. The idea and its realisation), *Educateurs*, Paris, **75**, May–June, 226–34.

An account of the S.O.S. Children's Villages by their founder (see also pp. 276, 278).

GULA, M. (1958) *Child-caring institutions*. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., No. 368. 27 pp. Reprinted 1966. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

An official booklet on children's institutions in the U.S., written for workers in legal, social or administrative fields.

HORWITZ, A. (1958) 'Rejected boys in youth groups' (title translated from Hebrew), *Megamot*, **9**, no. 2, 103–24.

A study of rejected children in youth groups, based on data provided by group instructors, talks with the isolated children and other members of the group, close observation of their behaviour, evaluative questionnaires and psychological tests. The results indicate that over-dependence on adults is common to rejected children and that this is usually the result of disturbance in early relations. The author suggests ways of helping the rejected.

HOLTOM, C. (1958) 'The role of the professional caseworker in a residential setting', *Case Conference*, **5**, no. 6, 141–6.

The special difficulties of doing casework as a residential worker are described: jealousies among the children, conflict of roles, the paucity of children receptive to therapeutic work.

IDELSTONE, H. (1958) 'The role of the psychiatrist in Youth Aliyah groups' (title translated from Hebrew), *Dapim*, March, 13–18.

A psychiatrist in the Youth Aliyah Group summarises his work in institutions. The author was a consultant in the medical service as well as treating children in institutions. It was not found necessary for a psychiatrist to see all cases, since for most of them a psychologist's opinion about treatment or placement was sufficient. In some cases individual psychotherapy was given. The cases needing treatment or supervision by a psychiatrist are: (*a*) those for whom staff advise individual therapy; (*b*) all cases where the child has to be placed in another institution for behaviour problems; and (*c*) children with difficult diagnoses. If individual treatment is needed, it is possible to assign cases to social workers or clinical psychologists, while the psychiatrist directs and supervises.

INGRAM, E. (1959) 'Family disciplines in the Children's Home', *Case Conference*, **5**, no. 10, 255–61.

Ways of providing some kind of family experience for children in residential care, without endangering ties with real families.

MARBACH, S. (1959) 'Educational problems in institutions' (title translated from Hebrew), *Saad*, **3**, 103–4.

The author discusses defects in institutional education and suggests improvements. He recommends government inspection of private institutions. The inspectors should decide which children should be sent to them. There must also be adequate trained staff, sufficiently well-paid to enable them to see a future in their work. The author suggests that these changes would improve the professional standard of institutions and help the children living in them.

MULOCK HOUWER, D. Q. R. (1959) 'Report on children's institutions in Holland', *International Child Welfare Review*, Geneva, **13**, no. 1, 8–33. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A full summary of a report on institutional care in Holland published in 1959. Statistics are appended.

PRINGLE, M. L. KELLMER (1959) 'Speech development in residential nurseries', *Child Care*, July, and in Pringle, M. L. K., *Deprivation and education*, Longmans, London, 1965. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A non-technical account of the findings and practical implications of the study published in *Language and speech*, 1958 (see p. 146).

BROM, M. (1960) 'Le "groupwork" dans les Homes d'enfants' (Group work in Children's Homes), *Service Social*, Brussels, **38**, no. 4, 161–8.

A discussion on the use of group therapeutic techniques in institutions.

EFRATH, E. (1960) 'Development of a youth group' (title translated from Hebrew), *Dapim*, June, pp. 40–6.

The training of young immigrants in Youth Aliyah agricultural institutions was organised in 1950. The article discusses what happens to boys and girls educated there: whether they return to their settlements or leave them. Interviews were arranged with young people who completed their agricultural education in the institution. There was no control group, and the author reached no definite conclusions; nevertheless, findings show that the institution helped the children, and the candidates returning to their settlements gained status. 274 boys and girls whose parents were in new agricultural settlements demonstrated that the institutional training was directly related to the ability of the candidates to adjust at home. The crisis of returning home did not disrupt the family nor relations with other people in the settlement. Most of the young people remained at home and carried out responsible tasks on their parents' farm. Of 274 boys and girls who were interviewed, 159 remained in the agricultural settlements, 38 left the settlements with their parents, 27 were in the army, 1 left and his parents stayed in the settlement, while 2 were hospitalised and abroad.

HONIG–PARNASS, T. (1960) *Training youth from new immigrant settlements: a study in Youth Aliyah education.* Jerusalem. 80 pp.

An institution for immigrant youth was established in the desert surroundings of Jerusalem in 1950. The author describes the early difficulties and the traumatic past of most of the children. The staff's aim was to help them regain their belief in mankind, and to develop the children's personalities with patience. Instead of punishment, the group itself criticised individuals. The 220 young people came from 26 countries, each with different cultural values. Every year the differences among them became smaller and in time they merged into one group. Group teaching was adjusted to the children's standard, which was lower than that of their age group in general. They also

got professional training in agriculture and handicraft according to individual ability. They organised their own cultural life by committees under the supervision of adults. From the institution they were recruited to the army and afterwards joined agricultural settlements, keeping in touch with the institution.

INFORMATIONS SOCIALES (1960) 'Les placements d'enfants' (Child placement). *Informations Sociales*, Paris, **14**, no. 7, special number, 83 pp. Bibliography in footnotes. Available at International Union of Child Welfare, Geneva.

A special number on child care containing articles on residential care and also on day care, hostels for unmarried mothers and placement for handicapped children.

KAHANOFF, J. (1960) *Ramat-Hadassah Szold, Youth Aliyah screening and classification centre*. Études pédagogiques, No. 5, Fédération Internationale des Communautés d'Enfants. (Published with the assistance of U.N.E.S.C.O.) (In English), Jerusalem. 174 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A monograph describing one of Youth Aliyah's institutions: a centre for receiving, observing and classifying immigrant children before sending them on to Kibbutzim and children's villages.

KOL, M. *et al.* (1960) 'Parents and the institution. Report of a discussion' (title translated from Hebrew), *Dapim*, June, pp. 16–23.

While formerly most children in institutions had immigrated through Youth Aliyah without their families, now most have parents in Israel. 90% are Oriental Jews, and a special problem is that institutional staffs usually belong to western culture patterns and have no understanding of the Oriental way of life. The children's different values must be understood and integrated patiently with the culture patterns of the institution. The importance of contact with the parents was pointed out; in general they were not asked about the kind of institution where their children were placed. To prevent their opposition, the staff should get them to participate in their children's education by encouraging them to visit, giving them information about their children and visiting them at home.

MULOCK HOUWER, D. Q. R. (1960) 'Institutional care—a remarkable survey', *International Child Welfare Review*, Geneva, **24**, no. 4, 392–402. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A summary of the findings of a report on institutional care in Toronto, published in 1959 in association with the Child Welfare League of

America. Numbers in placement, reasons for placement, length of placement and evaluation of institutional services are included.

SCHMID, L. (1960) 'Aus der Tätigkeit des Zürcher Institutes für Psychohygiene im Kindesalter' (Concerning the activities of the Zurich institute for mental health in childhood), *Pro Juventute*, **41**, nos. 6–7, 475–9. Available at the Nationaal Bureau voor Kinderbescherming, the Hague.

In 1953 an institute was founded in Zurich for the purposes of studying the factors which determine the mental development of the young child. In this connection a study was made of all (400) institution children in the Canton, while some longitudinal studies were also started. The findings will be published in due course.

BROWN, I. H. D. (1961) 'The development of family-group Homes in Manchester (Parts 1 and 2),' *Child Care*, **15**, nos. 2 and 3, 45–50 and 89–92.

A change-over in Manchester's system of care is described in practical detail.

DAVIES, J. W. D. (1961) 'Hospital and the deprived child', *Child Care*, **8**, no. 4, 98–103.

How to prepare the child in residential care for a stay in hospital.

DAVIES, J. W. D. (1961) 'Father and the deprived child', *Child Care*, **15**, no. 4, 129–34.

A discussion of the need for male workers in Children's Homes.

HERMANGE, C. and PICARDET, P. (1961) 'Quelques problèmes propres au fonctionnement des maisons d'enfants' (Some problems in the organisation of Children's Homes), *Informations Sociales*, Paris, **15**, nos. 10–11, 66–73. Available at the International Union of Child Welfare, Geneva.

Problems of administration, staff recruitment, etc. are discussed.

INFORMATIONS SOCIALES (1961) 'Solutions familiales de placement. Placements de jour. Placements permanents' (Family placements. Daily placement. Permanent placement), *Informations Sociales*, Paris, **15**, nos. 6–7, Special number, 94 pp. Bibliography in footnotes. Available at International Union of Child Welfare, Geneva.

A special issue on child care contains articles by Ceccaldi, Viguie and Lafay-Coletsos, Hermange and Picardet, etc. (see pp. 247 and 271). Also articles on adolescents' hostels, unmarried mothers' hostels, old people's Homes, care for the handicapped and a list of training centres in France for social workers.

INGRAM, E. (1961) 'Living together in the Children's Home', *Case Conference*, **7**, no. 7, 165–9.

A discussion of one of the residential worker's hardest tasks: preserving harmonious staff relationships.

INGRAM, E. (1961) 'Play and leisure in the Children's Home', *Case Conference*, **7**, no. 8, 197–202.

Provision for creative play and hobbies for children in residential care.

PRINGLE, M. L. KELLMER (1961) 'Emotional adjustment among children in care. Part II: Practical implications', *Child Care*, **15**, 54–9; and in Pringle, M. L. K., *Deprivation and education*, Longmans, London, 1965. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Practical recommendations which would help to ensure that every child in institutional care has the opportunity to make a stable emotional tie with an adult in the outside world.

PROVENCE, S. and RITVO, S. (1961) 'Effects of deprivation on institutionalised infants: disturbances in development of relationship to inanimate objects', *The Psychoanalytic Study of the Child*, **16**, 189–205.

A discussion in psychoanalytical terms of some of the findings described in *Infants in institutions* (see p. 113).

SLACHMUYLDER, L. (1961) 'Les relations humaines dans les communautés d'enfants' (Human relationships in children's institutions), *Cahiers de l'Enfance*, Paris, no. **9**, 77, 13–26. Available at International Union of Child Welfare, Geneva.

A discussion of children's institutions in several countries, of the need for individual care and for contact with parents whenever possible.

VIGUIE, M. and LAFAY-COLETSOS, L. (1961) 'Les pouponnières' (Nurseries), *Informations Sociales*, Paris, **15**, nos. 10–11, 18–30. Available at International Union of Child Welfare, Geneva.

A description of residential nurseries in France. More staff and better premises are recommended; ideally there should be one staff member to

each infant. The authors conclude that residential nurseries are a second-best environment for babies.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA (1962) *Group home programs: a study of some programs operated by League member agencies.* 19 pp. 2nd printing. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A brief description of small 'family group homes' supporting from 4 to 13 children run by 14 American welfare agencies.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA (1962) *Child care institutions in relationship to other agencies*, by H. R. Hagan. 16 pp. 2nd printing. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

An analysis, based on questionnaires and the study of a large number of institutions, of hostility between different sectors of the welfare services in the United States.

FRAIBERG, S. (1962) 'A therapeutic approach to reactive ego disturbances in the child in placement', *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, **32**, no. 1, 18–31.

Therapy concentrated on feelings of rejection by parents and foster parents, and backed by group treatment and talks with houseparents, was given to institutionalised children; two successful and one unsuccessful case are described. The first months after institutionalisation are the critical period for therapy. A comment on the paper notes that such deep therapy is not within the resources of all caseworkers.

KOHN, J. (1962) 'The institution for children in school time' (title translated from Hebrew), *Dapim*, November, pp. 19–24.

The article discusses problems of residential care. It must provide a substitute for the inadequate family. Children aged 6 to 14 can be accepted, and the purpose is to give them a chance to adapt themselves to the world outside without breaking the special regulations of the Home, paying particular attention to the fact that the child is isolated from his parents. The group gives the child a feeling of belonging and may develop his abilities. It may be a family group—including different ages; even more useful are groups where the special needs of each age are planned for. The daily routine includes study, free time for individual activities and daily duties, youth movements, time for ideological education, etc. The staff needs to be skilled and to include instructors and nurses for every age group with a professional approach to children's needs.

ANNUAL REVIEW OF THE RESIDENTIAL CHILD CARE ASSOCIATION (1963) *An ABC of social problems—and therapy*, Vol. 11. 89 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Contains articles on Reception Centres, disturbed children, job-finding for adolescents in care, hospitalisation, school work, etc.

APPELL, G. (1963) 'Adaptation et inadaptation de l'enfant à la Maison d'Enfants' (Adjustment and maladjustment of children in Homes), *Vers l'Education Nouvelle*, Paris, **170**, March, 1–12. Available at the International Bureau of Education, Geneva.

Extract from a report made to a French governmental organisation. A summary of the factors working against good adjustment in the institutionalised child. Recommendations for individualised attention, genuine emotional contact with adults, a curriculum permitting free personal expression, and a reliable environment.

APPELL, G. (1963) 'Les observations d'enfants en Maisons d'Enfants' (Observation of children in Homes), *Vers l'Education Nouvelle*, Paris, **175**, September, 1–10. Available at the International Bureau of Education, Geneva.

An account of discussions at a seminar organised by a French governmental department on the subject of observation of children in institutions. Purposes and types of detailed observation were discussed, and group discussions among staff recommended. The method serves to clarify both children's behaviour and staff attitudes (see also p. 279).

BEEDELL, C. J. (1963) 'Life in Children's Homes and staffing policy', *Proceedings of the 14th Annual Conference of the Association of Children's Officers*. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Suggestions for making residential work more rewarding.

COOPER, J. D. (1963) 'Residential care', *Child Care*, **17**, no. 3, 108–14. Questions about the advantages and disadvantages of small Homes containing up to 12 children; with comments by six senior Child Care workers.

DAVID, N. (1963) 'Remedial education for disturbed children in care', *Annual Review of the Residential Child Care Association*, **11**, 68–71. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

The aims and problems of work in a Remedial Unit.

DAVIES, J. W. D. (1963) 'Reality and the deprived child', *Case Conference*, **10**, no. 2, 53–7.

The author urges that residential care should not insulate the child from the realities of the outside world. Some of the subjects touched on are sex education, handling money, joining in community activities, accepting death and illness and being given information about family history.

DOLS, J. (1963) 'Expérience de service social de groupe dans une maison de jeunes' (An experiment in group social service in a young people's Home), *Bulletin Mensuel du Centre d'Études et de Documentation Sociales de la Province de Liège*, **17**, nos. 5–6, 252–68.

Group work with adolescents in care.

GREENBERG, A. (1963) 'Agency-owned and operated group foster homes for adolescents', *Child Welfare*, **42**, no. 4, 173–9.

An American experiment in making special provision for groups of teenagers.

KYDD, R. (1963) 'Assessment and therapy in the Reception Centre', *Annual Review of the Residential Child Care Association*, **11**, 6–24. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A detailed and practical account of how the Reception Centre can provide reassurance and assessment.

MEHRINGER, A. (1963) 'Das Heimkind und seine Angehörigen' (The institutionalised child and his relatives), *Unsere Jugend*, **15**, no. 4, 156–64. Available at the Nationaal Bureau voor Kinderbescherming, the Hague.

Work with the parents of the institutionalised child is seen in relation to the evolution of institutional upbringing as a whole. Observations are made regarding organisation and method in this field of work before, during and after the placing in an institution.

UNION NATIONALE INTERFÉDÉRALE DES OEUVRES PRIVÉES SANITAIRES ET SOCIALES, Paris (1963) 'Évolution des organisations et oeuvres de jeunesse en fonction des conditions de vie des jeunes. Problèmes psychologiques de la vie en établissement' (The development of welfare organisations for youth. Psychological problems of institutional life), *Union Sociale*, Paris, **116/117**, special issue, 106 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

This special issue of a journal which represents a joint organisation in private and public welfare agencies, reports on a Conference held of Strasbourg in 1963. Papers are included on various Children's Homes, Children's Villages, 'foyers de l'enfance' (Reception Centres), hostels for adolescents, practical problems of life in institutions, and professional training.

U.S. CHILDREN'S BUREAU (1963) *Agency operated group homes: a specialised tool in child welfare*, by Martin Gula. Washington, D.C., Children's Bureau, United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare. 35 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A form of care suitable for selected children is described. Welfare agencies buy or rent a house or flat and install professional staff to look after 4–12 children. Administration, costs, staffing, policy, selection and treatment of children, are discussed.

WACHSTEIN, S. (1963) 'An Austrian solution to the problem of child placement', *Child Welfare*, **42**, no. 2, 82–5.

A description of the S.O.S. Children's Villages of Hermann Gmeiner (see also p. 267).

YARROW, L. J. (1963) 'Long-term implications of maternal separation: some comments on "The young adult adjustment of twenty wartime residential nursery children"', *Child Welfare*, **42**, no. 2, 72–6.

Some comments on Henry Maas's follow-up study (see p. 168).

YONAS, B. (1963) 'Problems confronting the social educational public institution. A summary of 5 years' partnership in the northern districts' (title translated from Hebrew), *Saad*, **8**, 129–31, 163–6.

In 1958 some Heads of children's institutions arranged a meeting to discuss common problems. Staff from seven institutions took part. They visited different institutions, and difficulties arose at the beginning when they had to criticise the work of the institution visited. The next stage was to set a standard for staff training. They did not succeed immediately, but in 1963 another experiment was tried, training the Directors in subjects such as avoiding institutionalism. Teachers, supervisors, etc. were invited and took an active part. Five years of co-operative work between the institutions shows success and the beginning of a formal association. There is now discussion about future plans; the author is optimistic about their success.

ANNUAL REVIEW OF THE RESIDENTIAL CHILD CARE ASSOCIATION (1964) *An ABC of social services*, Vol. 12. 107 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Contains articles on the work of all welfare departments concerned with children.

BLATT DER WOHLFAHRTSPFLEGE (1964) 'Pflegekinder im Kinderdorf' (Foster children in the children's village), *Blatt der Wohlfahrtspflege*, January. Also *Nachrichtendienst*, August, p. 93.

Detailed articles devoted to child care in institutions, the children's village, etc.: historical and sociological backgrounds; problems; starting points; basic principles.

BRILL, K. and THOMAS, R. (1964) *Children in Homes*. Gollancz, London. 191 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A lucid introduction to the practices and problems of running Children's Homes, with a classification of types of residential care available in England.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA (1964) *Group homes in perspective*. 48 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Six articles reprinted from *Child Welfare* on care in small groups given by professional or specially chosen foster parents, and administered directly by welfare agencies.

FROMMAN, A. (1964) 'Heimerziehung mit modernen sozialpädagogischem Methoden' (Institutional care with modern socio-educational methods), *Sozial-Pädagogik*, **6**, 07, no. 4, 156–60. Available at the Nationaal Bureau voor Kinderbescherming, the Hague.

The best specialist provisions for institutional care will fail if the total daily environment for living is not structured and implemented under the leadership of a multi-disciplinary team, in the light of the accepted plans for treatment. Bibliography.

GENEVILLE, R. (1964) 'Une expérience d'observation en maisons d'enfants' (Experimental observation in Children's Homes), *Vers l'Education Nouvelle*, Paris, **187**, 11–20. Available at International Union of Child Welfare, Geneva.

An account of an experimental method of specialised observation of children in institutions (see also pp. 274 and 279). One staff member was assigned to one child, and careful observations of behaviour and

speech made for a specified period and recorded in the child's file. Results were discussed at weekly staff meetings, and forms for recording observations evolved. The children responded to the extra attention, some were found to need consultant services, and the staff found the work challenging and helpful in their contacts with parents.

HOLLINGSWORTH, H. H. (1964) 'The child-caring institution on the move', *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, **355**, 42–8. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

New difficulties for institutional care, and ways of meeting them.

LIVNEH, J. (1964) 'The social background to the placement of infants and young children in institutions' (title translated from Hebrew), *Saad*, **8**, 51–3.

This article gives statistical facts about the social background of placed children. The author also suggests ways of preventing placement by treatment at home, day nurseries, etc. If there is no alternative to placement, the worker collects details about the family for the Department, which must decide whether to place in an institution or with a foster family. Until now there has been no real alternative to institutions, where about 75% of children in care are placed. The author urges better co-operation between the social services and institutions.

MULOCK HOUWER, D. Q. R. (1964) 'Children's villages—an innovation in the field of child welfare? Parts I and II', *The Child in Care*, September and October, pp. 9–18 and 8–14. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A description of children's villages in Israel, Italy, Canada, Switzerland and Austria; with a discussion of their possibilities and disadvantages, both for Europe and the developing countries.

SEELIGER, R. (1964) *Enfants des villages S.O.S.* (Children of the S.O.S. villages). Ed. Fleurus, Paris. 274 pp.

An account of the S.O.S. children's villages founded by Hermann Gmeiner (see also pp. 267, 276).

ANNUAL REVIEW OF THE RESIDENTIAL CHILD CARE ASSOCIATION (1965) *Change and the child in care*, Vol. 13, 103 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Contains articles on training, research, design of institutions, preventive work, male residential workers, and coloured children in care.

APPELL, G. (1965) 'Les observations d'enfants en Maisons d'Enfants' (Observation of children in Homes), *Vers l'Education Nouvelle*, Paris, **191**, 5–13. Available at International Bureau of Education, Geneva.

A fuller discussion of the specialised method of observation of children being used experimentally (see also pp. 274, 277); a report of a group discussion on the method at a training seminar. Case material is presented of recorded incidents and the remarks of one child over a period of time and their usefulness. The seminar concluded that the method could be difficult for staff to use, as it involved objective analysis of their own attitudes, and group discussion of the observations can undermine an authoritarian staff structure; but it is nevertheless an essential working tool.

BAR–NEZER, C. (1965) 'A new type of supervision in institutions' (title translated from Hebrew), *Dapim*, May, pp. 18–22.

A crisis in Israeli Homes has arisen recently because of the lack of instructors, the main reason being that staff are tied to the institution 24 hours a day. Children are generally divided into groups with a house mother and an instructor; but in 'Alonei Itzchak' children were managed without being divided into groups, only one organising instructor being needed, responsible for the general activity of the institution. The reason for the change was lack of competent instructors. The author doubts whether this new method is really fulfilling all its aims, because it is harder to influence children's character this way; it is not yet clear whether the new method will bring better results.

GALE, J. A. B. (1965) 'The Pestalozzi Children's Village', *Child Care*, **19**, no. 2, 65–7.

A description of the International Villages in Switzerland and Great Britain by the Development Officer of the English Village.

GOTTESMAN, M. (1965) 'Youth villages past and present' (title translated from Hebrew), *Dapim*, June, pp. 23–7.

'Youth villages' in the past were based on agricultural labour. The idea was the socially active Kibbutz worker; theoretical studies were not so important. Individuality was not emphasised. Youth and Zionist movements considerably determined the character of life in Israel. Today this has changed; agriculture is less important and education is not directed to conquering the desert but to academic studies. Nowadays the boy who fails at school finds life harder, and life in a youth village is influenced by studying and examinations.

HALL, H. (1965) 'Building and design of Children's Homes', *Annual Review of the Residential Child Care Association*, **13**, 47–52. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Some of the traditional and contemporary Homes being built for Dr Barnardo's are described by an architect.

RAYNES, N. V. and KING, R. D. (1965) 'Research into residential child care', *Annual Review of the Residential Child Care Association*, **13**, 39–46. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Interim findings of a current research project comparing different types of residential care (see p. 301).

WOLFF, D. (1965) 'Die Heranwachsenden in der Heimerziehung' (The adolescent in institutional care), *Beilage Mitglieder Rundbrief*, **7–8**, 1–6. Available at the Nationaal Bureau voor Kinderbescherming, the Hague.

The author provides some data concerning adolescents in care, discusses their specific pedagogic problems, and draws some conclusions with regard to diagnosis, prognosis and possibilities of treatment.

WOLINS, M. (1965) 'Another view of group care', *Child Welfare*, **44**, no. 1, 10–18.

The author describes institutional care in Israel and the U.S.S.R. and urges a re-evaluation of its use.

ZIV, A. (1965) 'L'adaptation en maison d'enfants' (Adjustment in Children's Homes), *Vers l'Education Nouvelle*, **197** and **198**, 1–10. Available at International Union of Child Welfare, Geneva.

Based on the author's research for the Union Nationale des Caisses d'Allocations Familiales (see p. 185). He describes criteria for assessing the adjustment of institutionalised children and the use of sociometric tests and sociograms to help in understanding them.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA (1966) *Standards for services of child welfare institutions*. 141 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Standards based on a survey of practice, literature and consultation, to be used as an educational tool and a yardstick for planning.

DAVIES, J. W. D. (1966) 'Group work and the deprived child', *Case Conference*, **12**, no. 7, 222–32.

An account of experimental, informal group discussions with adolescent boys living in a hostel, and a discussion of how this method of help can best be extended and organised.

DAVIES, J. W. D., BEST, K. and JONES, B. (1966) 'Family group homes—a trilogy', *Child Care*, **20**, no. 2, 53–63.

The advantages and disadvantages of this form of care; by a social worker, and a housemother and housefather.

MEHRINGER, A. (1966) 'Geschützte Kleinkindzeit' (Protecting the early years of the child), *Unsere Jugend*, **18**, no. 5, 195–208. Available at the Nationaal Bureau voor Kinderbescherming, the Hague.

Against a background of scientific data the author discusses the situation of the young child in an institution. All too often the conditions under which it is brought up are still inadequate. There is much room for change, e.g. by providing specialised Homes, and an improvement in the management of child care and social work could avoid the need for much institutionalising. Bibliography.

4. Child care workers

SCHRAGER, J. (1956) 'Observations on the loss of a housemother', *Social Casework*, **37**, no. 3, 120–6.

Notes on the reactions of children and staff. The author recommends that staff departures, if they are inevitable, should be very carefully handled.

CLEMENT BROWN, S. (1957) 'Training for residential work', *Child Care*, **11**, no. 1, 14–18. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

The author describes a survey of houseparents' opinions on the value of their training (see p. 191). The following points emerged: (*a*) practical work in Homes, for at least two months, was appreciated; (*b*) help in understanding older children would have been welcome; and (*c*) more might have been taught about group relationships and family relationships.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA (1958) *A guide for child welfare workers*, by Morris F. Mayer. 184 pp. Reprinted 1963. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A handbook for all residential child care staff, covering child development, routine and discipline, relations with colleagues and children's parents.

KRAAK, B. (1958) 'Heimleiter und Gruppenerzieher' (Directors and group educators in children's homes), *Unsere Jugend*, May, pp. 214–20. Available at the Nationaal Bureau voor Kinderbescherming, the Hague.

It is not the director of a Home or institution who should have the actual task of bringing up the children, but the group leader, who knows the group much better. This would give the director more the role of adviser on pedagogic problems, and the group leader a greater degree of independence, allowing the children a more real sense of being cared for.

MEHRINGER, A. (1959) 'Die Anleitung der pädagogischen Mitarbeiter im Heim' (The training of educators in institutions), *Unsere Jugend*, **11**, no. 11, 508–16, Part I; and no. 12, 554–83, Part II. Available at the Nationaal Bureau voor Kinderbescherming, the Hague.

Just as in a good family the parents discuss the problems of bringing up their children, it is also necessary in an institution that such difficulties as arise should be discussed; (*a*) in general; (*b*) as any particular case occurs; and (*c*) as part of the normal daily procedure. Such discussions in the long run produce versatile and co-operative co-workers.

NATIONAL CHILD WELFARE MOVEMENT, GERMANY (1959) 'The situation of child care staff in institutions', *International Child Welfare Review*, **13**, no. 1, 39–42. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Summary of the recommendations of a Committee studying residential care in five areas of West Germany, regarding: size of institutions, family groups within institutions, ratio of staff to children, training of staff, working hours, age and sex of staff, accommodation, meetings and visits.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA (1960) *Cottage parents—what they have to be, know and do*, by Hyman Grossbard. 29 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A paper presented to a conference on the training of houseparents.

DAVID, M. (1960) 'Rôle de l'assistante sociale dans le placement d'enfants' (The role of the social worker in child placement), *Informations Sociales*, Paris, **14**, no. 7, 5–11. Available at the Library of the International Union for Child Welfare, Geneva.

A child psychiatrist discusses the social worker's role in child placement: to choose the best placement, prepare child and family, act as a link between child and parents during the separation, and work towards reuniting the family wherever it is practicable.

JEHU, D. (1960) 'Relationships in child care', *Child Care*, **14**, no. 3, 45–50.

The author clarifies the functions of Children's Officers, Child Care Officers and residential staff, and discusses how these can be emphasised during training.

KAHANA, J. (1960) 'Institutional staff' (title translated from Hebrew), Research Department of the Welfare Office, pp. 24–9.

The care of the maladjusted child should be given in general by his own family; only if his problems are severe should he be placed in an institution. As a result, institutions contain the most difficult children. This situation calls for varied rehabilitative services: both individual and group treatment, and even more important, a united staff giving the

frustrated child a feeling that he is loved and wanted. Members of the staff must understand their own feelings and be able to offer the child experiences that are reliable and different from his past experiences at home. The director should manage his staff democratically through informal meetings; he must be ready to face conflict and help in finding solutions. If he succeeds in making the staff a friendly group they may transfer this atmosphere to the children, which is the first step in bringing them back to normality.

MARBACH, S (1960) 'The staff of institutions. Problems of organisation' (title translated from Hebrew), Research Department of the Welfare Office, pp. 38–49.

A historical review, beginning with orphanages, institutions for delinquents and Youth Aliyah institutions, and ending with the classifying problems in the years of mass immigration when problems of staff and organisation became acute. Different motivations for child care work are discussed and the problem of how to maintain good relationships among the different workers. In the author's opinion not enough efforts are made to attract new staff through training courses for institutions. Staff already in the institutions also need training and the feeling of solidarity arising from the knowledge that they are taking part in planning the children's futures.

ASSOCIATION NATIONALE DES COMMUNAUTÉS D'ENFANTS (1961) 'L'équipe des adultes dans la communauté d'enfants. Communications et rapports' (The team of adults in the Children's Community. Information and reports). Journées d'études. Aix en Provence, 16–19 February, 1961. *Cahiers de l'Enfance Inadaptée*, Paris, December, **3**, 122. Available at the Libraries of the International Union for Child Welfare and International Bureau of Education, Geneva.

A full account of a conference on training of staff for work in children's homes in France. Subjects include selection of staff, supervision and promotion, problems of child care workers and ways of enriching the life of residential workers.

DEVON COUNTY COUNCIL, CHILDREN'S COMMITTEE (1961) 'Allocation of time in the average working week of professional staff in the Devon Children's Department, April–May, 1961.' Operational Research Report No. 30. Duplicated. 7 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

The average Child Care Officer spent more time in the office than on visits. The average working week was about 48 hours. Total mileage covered by 19 workers in four weeks was 18,147.

EASTON, R. (1961) 'Some indications for training caseworkers in Children's Departments', *Case Conference*, **7**, no. 9, 230–1.

A caseworker specialising in preventive work briefly analyses 50 cases and lists the presenting problems in order of frequency, as a guide to those teaching student social workers.

LADE, K. (1961) 'An experiment in training—Dr Barnardo's course for welfare officers', *Child Care*, **15**, no. 3, 106–7.

An account of Dr Barnardo's one-year training course for students aged between 27 and 40.

PARAD, H. J. (1961) 'Social work training for child welfare: some key issues', *Child Welfare*, **40**, no. 1, 1–7.

A plan for reorganising recruitment, training and deployment of staff in the U.S.A.

PARSONS, F. E. (1961) 'Residential child care: married staff and their children', *Case Conference*, **8**, no. 5, 123–5.

A discussion of the problems of family living that residential staff experience.

APPELBERG, E. (1962) 'Advising children and youth groups' (title translated from Hebrew), *Saad*, **6**, 176–8.

The aim of counselling is to help the field worker to use his abilities more efficiently in child care. The counsellor does not teach or supervise field workers, but their changes in outlook are the results of the counselling process. As in all casework, success depends on the ability of the field worker to co-operate on the one hand, and the talent of the counsellor in helping the worker on the other hand.

BROTEN, A. M. (1962) *Houseparents in children's institutions—a discussion guide*. University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill. 90 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A brief handbook for training courses.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA (1962) *The strains and stresses on the child welfare worker*, by Ner Littner. 20 pp. First printed 1957. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A discussion of the anxieties that can be aroused by working with disturbed children and their parents, and of ways of alleviating anxiety

by support and supervision. The author also recommends more appreciation of the social worker's job, pointing out that in the U.S. he earns, after postgraduate training, less than a skilled labourer.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA (1962) *Supervision of houseparents*, by M. F. Mayer. 37 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A case history of the supervision of one housemother's relationship with a disturbed girl.

TIMMS, N. and ITZIN, F. (1962) 'The role of the Child Care Officer', *Child Care News*, March; and *British Journal of Psychiatric Social Work*, **6**, no. 2, 74–83.

Small samples of Child Care Officers, foster parents and residential staff were questioned about the role of the Child Care Officer. Answers revealed some confusion, and a very wide range of expectations. Replication of the study with a larger sample is recommended.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA (1963) *Training for child care staff*. 83 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Contains articles on self-awareness in residential staff, different types of applicant, training in the teaching of art and handicrafts, etc.

OFER, E. (1963) 'Instructor and nurses in youth groups' (title translated from Hebrew), *Dapim*, August, pp. 48–52.

This article deals with the special duties of the instructor. He acts as educator, teacher, parent and brother, and must first of all show affection and patience to the children under his care, particularly to the new immigrants; beyond this, his duty is in socialising and in individual treatment. The instructor also needs to help parents understand their children better. Further, he needs to be a qualified teacher because often he has to teach as well. While young children often identify with the instructor, for the older boys he acts more as an adviser. The nurse needs—in addition to her duties (preparing meals, clothes, etc.)—to have some psychological knowledge about children; finally, co-operation between her and the instructor is essential.

PILIAVIN, I. (1963) 'Conflict between cottage parents and caseworkers', *Social Service Review*, **37**, no. 1, 17–25.

The author in separate interviews with cottage parents and caseworkers at two institutions found friction between the two groups, with many cottage parents expressing indifference about treatment plans for children.

BURMEISTER, E. (1964) *The professional houseparent.* Columbia University Press. 244 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Discusses in practical terms the work of the houseparent in the United States; and covers, among other subjects, play, discipline, meals, routine, pets, sex education, religion.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA (1964) *Education and training for child welfare* by A. Kristenson *et al.* 24 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A symposium on the general and specialised knowledge that is required of child welfare workers, containing four articles reprinted from *Child Welfare.*

HOLMAN, R. (1964) 'Through a year with a Child Care Officer', *Case Conference,* **11**, no. 5, 147–51. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

An analysis of the way one Child Care Officer spent his time during a year's work.

HROMADKA, van G. (1964) 'How child care workers are trained in Europe', *Children,* **11**, no. 6, 219–22. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A comparison of the training of European and American child care workers, by the Research Director of the Jewish Board of Guardians. The author compares European methods favourably with American in two respects: European training is more professional; and also staff are fully trained to deal with all types of children, including the maladjusted and delinquent.

HUGHES JONES, R. (1964) 'Staff children', *Child Care,* **18**, no. 3, 102–4.

A practical discussion of problems, by the Matron of a voluntary Home.

WATSON, S. (1964) 'Manpower in the child care service', *Social Work,* **21**, no. 1, 15–20. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

The author describes an impending staffing crisis: while the Child Care Officer's responsibility increases, recruitment (especially of fully qualified staff) is decreasing. Recommendations for increasing the number of training places are made.

ASHTON, E. T. (1965) 'The caseworker, role-conflict and cognitive dissonance', *Case Conference,* **12**, no. 2, 53–5.

An analysis of a basic incongruity between official and personal aims in the social worker's life.

BANNER, G. A. (1965) 'In-service training schemes', *Annual Review of the Residential Child Care Association*, **13**, 21–31.

A discussion of the role of in-service training in raising standards and reducing staff turnover, and a description of some current schemes.

BREMER, E. (1965) 'Concepts at work in training to care', *Annual Review of the Residential Child Care Association*, **13**, 16–20.

The author examines four aspects of residential work in child care which should be incorporated into training programmes: understanding of human needs; home-making; knowledge of the child care service as a whole; and the development of children's initiative and creativity.

DEVON COUNTY COUNCIL, CHILDREN'S COMMITTEE (1965) *Individual workloads of Devon child care workers on 31st March, 1965, and the flow of work during the year 1964/1965*. Operational Research Report No. 57. Duplicated. 9 pp. + 8 tables. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Data from one Local Authority covers: general trends in caseloads, number of children admitted to and refused care, and distribution of caseloads.

HENRY, R. (1965) 'The man in residential child care', *Annual Review of the Residential Child Care Association*, **13**, 52–7.

A plea for the presence of more men in Children's Homes: as married or single housefathers, adoptive 'uncles', or visiting friends and relatives of women staff. The historical background to the present predominance of women staff is sketched.

PARKER, S. R. (1965) 'Work and non-work in three occupations', *Sociological Review*, **13**, no. 1, 65–75.

The attitudes to work and leisure of bank clerks, Child Care Officers and Youth Employment Officers were investigated by questionnaires. The social workers were much more work-oriented and much more satisfied with their jobs than bank clerks.

POTTS, D. (1965) 'An enquiry into the staff of Children's Homes who are on Home Office training courses in May.' Typed. 22 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A student research project. A questionnaire answered by 88 trainees elicited the following facts: the average male trainee was 33 and married, the average female 24 and single; 26% of the total number had had a Grammar School education. They had previously worked in residential

care for an average of four years. 50 of the 88 trainees considered salaries adequate; comments on the work mostly concerned more free time for staff.

WICKS, L. F. (1965) 'The growth of professionalism', *Annual Review of the Residential Child Care Association*, **13**, 11–15.

The author recommends an overall rationalisation of professional associations within the field of social work, and State registration of social workers to which specialised ancillary qualifications would be added.

GERTNER, E. (1966) 'A part-time course for married women', *Accord*, **11**, no. 2, 27–30.

A report of an attempt to establish a part-time three-month refresher course in child care for married social workers, after it had been ascertained that many Children's Departments were employing part-time Child Care Officers; but there was found to be little demand, and a shortage of suitable students who could work the hours required.

THE CHILD IN CARE (1966) 'A pattern of training for residential child care workers', *The Child in Care*, November, pp. 28–30. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

Provisional suggestions for a future training scheme made by members of the Residential Child Care Association. The following are proposed: an introductory course lasting 2 to 3 months, followed by at least 9 months' practical training; eventually a 2-year course is envisaged. Refresher courses (compulsory after 4 years), and advanced courses are also discussed. Training should be the responsibility of a training officer, appointed by each Local Authority.

HUWS JONES, R. (1966) 'The staffing of residential Homes', *The Child in Care*, December, pp. 7–15. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

An address to the Annual Conference of the Association of Children's Officers, 1966. The author recommends one common training for all types of residential work, not only for children but for the elderly, the handicapped, etc.

5. Children in Kibbutzim

IRVINE, E. E. (1952) 'Observations on the aims and methods of child rearing in communal settlements in Israel', *Human Relations*, **5**, no. 3, 247–75.

A general discussion of Kibbutz life by a psychiatric social worker.

CAPLAN, G. (1954) 'Clinical observations on the emotional life of children in the communal settlements in Israel', in Senn, M. J. E., ed., *Problems of infancy and childhood*. (Transactions of the Seventh Conference, New York, Josiah Macy Jr. Foundation), pp. 91–120.

The author was adviser on mental health in Israel, and describes Kibbutz children as showing signs of disturbance (enuresis, thumb-sucking) in early years, but growing up into stable personalities. His account is discussed by paediatricians and psychiatrists attending the Conference.

SPIRO, M. E. (1955) 'Education in a communal village in Israel', *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, **25**, no. 2, 283–92. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A description of Kibbutz education, and results of projective tests completed by Kibbutz children which show that the group plays a more important part than the family in socialisation.

FAIGIN, H. (1958) 'Social behaviour of young children in the Kibbutz', *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, **56**, no. 1, 117–29. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A detailed observational study of small children in two Kibbutzim. Routines and social training are described, and in particular the emphasis on sharing and on group identification. Both affection and discipline are dispensed by the children themselves as well as by adults. Aggression was commonest in the youngest group; by $2\frac{1}{2}$, affectionate responses were as frequent as aggressive.

GOLAN, S. *et al.* (1958) 'Behaviour research in collective settlements in Israel', *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, **28**, no. 3, 547–97.

A collection of 6 articles (see below).

GOLAN, S. (1958) 'Collective education in the Kibbutz', *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, **28**, no. 3, 549–56.

The author estimates the amount of emotional maladjustment among Kibbutz children at about 5–6%, and ascribes it to parental pressure rather than communal upbringing.

RAPAPORT, D. (1958) 'Behaviour research in collective settlements in Israel: the study of Kibbutz education and its bearing on the theory of development', *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, **28**, no. 3, 587–97. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A theoretical paper discussing the possible implications of research on Kibbutzim for understanding the relationship between upbringing and adult character.

ROSENFELD, E. (1958) 'The American social scientist in Israel: a case study in role conflict', *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, **28**, no. 3, 563–71.

The author analyses the defensiveness of both American observers and the Kibbutz population, which acts as a barrier to inter-cultural study.

SCHWARTZ, R. (1958) 'Some problems of research in Israeli settlements', *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, **28**, no. 3, 572–76.

Some of the obstacles to objective research on a different culture are discussed.

SPIRO, M. E. (1958) *Children of the Kibbutz*. Harvard University Press. 500 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

The most detailed account of Kibbutz upbringing and its possible effect on adult character. The author, who lived in and observed a Kibbutz for a year, sharply distinguishes the outcome of a communal upbringing from the character-structure ascribed to deprived children in institutions.

WINOGRAD, M. (1958) 'The development of the young child in a collective settlement', *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, **28**, no. 3, 557–62.

Case studies of five children.

BAR-JOSEF, R. (1960) 'Socialisation patterns in the Kibbutz', *Megamot*, **11**, 23–33 (Hebrew); and *Human Relations*, 1959, **12**, no. 4, 345–60. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A sociological analysis. Two types of relationship within the Kibbutz are distinguished: primary, 'individualistically' oriented contacts, and instrumental, 'collectively' oriented contacts. Combining these two orientations—within the structural and ideological framework of the Kibbutz society—is not an easy task. The question posed in this paper is: how do the socialisation patterns of the Kibbutz prepare children for this double orientation with its inherent conflict? The answer is indicated in the description of the simultaneous functioning, throughout the infant's and child's life, of two socialising agents: the mother (and somewhat later, the father) on the one hand, and the Metapelet (nurse) and somewhat later the children's group on the other.

DARIN-DRABKIN, H. (1962) *The other society*. (Chapter IX: 'Collective education'.) Gollancz, London. 356 pp.

A brief description of Kibbutz upbringing.

KAFFMAN, M. (1963) 'Children of the Kibbutz. Clinical observations', in *Current psychiatric therapies*, Vol. III, New York, 171–9.

The writer, consultant child psychiatrist to several Kibbutzim, assesses the rate of emotional disturbance among Kibbutz children at 12–15%, but believes this may in fact be lower than in the average child population owing to ample opportunities in Kibbutzim for detecting maladjustment. Antisocial problems were rare. Nearly all referrals were of children over 4 years of age.

EISENBERG, L. and NEUBAUER, P. B. (1965) 'Mental health issues in Israeli collectives: Kibbutzim', *Journal of the American Academy of Child Psychiatry*, **4**, no. 3, 426–42. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

A discussion of collective child-rearing practices, and of implications for Western methods of care. The rarity of delinquency and homosexuality among Israeli youth is mentioned.

NEUBAUER, P. (1965) *Children in collectives*. Thomas, New York. 383 pp.

The proceedings of a joint seminar on child-rearing in the Kibbutz, held in Israel for American and Israeli experts in child development. Papers, discussions and summing-up are reported on infancy, childhood, adolescence and the role of family life, and additional papers on child-rearing in other countries included. The bibliography lists further background reading.

IRVINE, E. E. (1966) 'Children in Kibbutzim: thirteen years after', *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, **7**, nos. 3/4, 167–78.

A comparison of past and present methods of child-rearing in the Kibbutz. The author visited Kibbutzim in 1950 (see p. 290) and in 1963.

6. Reports and official publications

HOME OFFICE (1951) *Sixth report of the work of the Children's Department.* H.M.S.O. 152 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

UNITED NATIONS, DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL AFFAIRS (1952) *Children deprived of a normal home life.* New York. 38 pp.

HOME OFFICE (1955) *Seventh report of the work of the Children's Department.* H.M.S.O. 158 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

ORGANISATION DES NATIONS UNIES (UNITED NATIONS ORGANIZATION) (1955) *Cycle d'études européens des Nations Unies sur le placement familial des enfants, Sèvres, France,* 26 *mai–5 juin* 1954. In French only. 87 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

NORTHERN IRELAND CHILD WELFARE COUNCIL (1956) *Children in care.* H.M.S.O.

UNITED NATIONS, DEPARTMENT OF ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL AFFAIRS (1956) *The institutional care of children.* New York. 70 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

NORTHERN IRELAND CHILD WELFARE COUNCIL (1959) *The operation of the social services in relation to child welfare.* H.M.S.O. 45 pp.

RENDEL, L. (1959) *The Caldecott Community. A survey of forty-eight years.* Mersham, Kent; Caldecott Community Ltd. 45 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

UNITED NATIONS ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL (1959) *Possibilities of UNICEF aid for social services for children, with particular reference to institutions, day-care centres and other methods of care of children outside their own homes.* A report by Miss Alice Shaffer. 57 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

HOME OFFICE (1960) *Children and young persons.* Report of the Committee (Chairman, Rt. Hon. the Viscount Ingleby). Reprinted 1962. 179 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

HOME OFFICE (1961) *Eighth report on the work of the Children's Department.* H.M.S.O. 109 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION (1963) *The care of well children in day-care centres and institutions. Report of a joint UN/WHO Expert Committee convened with the participation of FAO, ILO and UNICEF.* Geneva, 1962. W.H.O. Technical Report Series, No. 256. 34 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

HOME OFFICE (1964) *Report on the work of the Children's Department*, 1961–63. H.M.S.O. 65 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

HOME OFFICE (1964) *The needs of young children in care.* A memorandum prepared by the Home Office in consultation with the Advisory Council on Child Care. H.M.S.O. 26 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

LIVERPOOL CITY COUNCIL, CHILDREN'S DEPARTMENT (1964) *Then and now—Report on the work, organisation and development of the Liverpool Children's Department*, 1949–1963. 107 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

UNITED NATIONS, DEPARTMENT OF ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL AFFAIRS (1965) *Family, child and youth welfare services.* New York. 61 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

ASSOCIATION OF CHILD CARE OFFICERS (1966) *Report of working party appointed to consider and report on the future of the personal social services and the law relating to children.* 24 pp.

HOME OFFICE (1966) *Government publications sectional list No.* 26. H.M.S.O. 39 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

HOME OFFICE (1966) *Children in care in England and Wales, March* 1964 *and* 1965. *Particulars of the number of children in the care of local authorities under the Children Act*, 1948, *the manner of their accommodation, and the estimated costs of maintenance; and the number of children in registered voluntary homes or boarded out by voluntary organisations.* H.M.S.O. 15 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

NORTHERN IRELAND CHILD WELFARE COUNCIL (1966) *Role of voluntary homes in the child care service.* H.M.S.O. 35 pp. Available at N.B.C.C.C.

7. Annotated list of ongoing research projects in the United Kingdom

Projects are presented in alphabetical order. Details were correct at the time of going to press.

BALBERNIE, R. Further studies of children in residential care.
Correspondence to: Richard Balbernie, Warneford House, Buckland, Faringdon, Berks.
Description: Studies of children in four residential establishments, and of staff training and insight.
Proposed completion date: 1967/68.

BOSS, P. and BARKER, M. Research on short-term care of children by Local Authority Departments.
Correspondence to: Peter Boss, Department of Social Science, Social Studies Building, University of Liverpool, Liverpool 7.
Description: A study of applications for, and decisions about, short-term care in two Departments; of characteristics of applicants; of attitudes of staff and clients to the service provided; and of the relation of the service to other Local Authority services.
Proposed completion date: 1968.

BOWLBY, J. Attachment and loss.
Sponsor: Tavistock Child Development Research Unit.
Correspondence to: Dr John Bowlby, Tavistock Child Development Research Unit, 2 Beaumont Street, London, W.1.
Description: The theoretical implications of observations of the responses of young children to separation from and reunion with their mothers will be discussed.
Proposed completion date: Volume I, 1967. Volume II in preparation.

BOWLBY, J. and ROBERTSON, J. Protest, despair and detachment.
Sponsor: Tavistock Child Development Research Unit.
Correspondence to: James Robertson, Tavistock Child Development Research Unit, 2 Beaumont Street, London, W.1.

BRUCE, N. Study of boys and girls from Approved Schools who have been in care.

Sponsor: Scottish Home and Health Department, and University of Edinburgh (research to be submitted for M.Sc. (Social Sciences)).
Correspondence to: Nigel Bruce, Applied Psychology Unit, Edinburgh University, 66 Pleasance, Edinburgh 8.
Description: Children in Approved Schools who have been in care will be compared with a random selection of children in care.
Proposed completion date: 1968.

BUTLER, B. M. I. Study of decision-making by Child Care Officers.

Correspondence to: Miss B. M. I. Butler, Lecturer in the Department of Sociology, Bedford College, Regent's Park, London, N.W.1.
Description: A study of criteria used for decision-making in five Local Authority Children's Departments, when accepting or refusing to take children into care under Section 1 of the 1948 Children Act. To be submitted for Ph.D. degree, University of Bristol.
Proposed completion date: 1967.

COLLIS, A. T. Child care and the 'Fit Person' Order.

Sponsor: Social Study Department, University of Birmingham.
Correspondence to: Arthur T. Collis, Senior Lecturer in Social Study, Social Study Department, The University, Birmingham 15.
Description: (*a*) An analysis of the care provided for children committed to the care of their Local Authorities by Juvenile Courts in the years 1945, 1950 and 1955; (*b*) A follow-up study to estimate the social adjustment of children in the above groups who have left care.
Proposed completion date: (*a*) 1967, (*b*) 1968.

CRICHTON, A. Referrals.

Sponsor: University College, Cardiff.
Correspondence to: Miss Anne Crichton, 55 Carisbrooke Way, Cyncoed, Cardiff.
Description: A project for training students in social research method, concerned with referrals of children in a district of Glamorgan.
Proposed completion date: 1967.

DERBYSHIRE COUNTY COUNCIL. Study of the methods used by Child Care Officers to assist families in need of long-term support, whether or not the children are received into care.

Sponsors: Department of Applied Social Sciences, University of Nottingham; and Derbyshire County Council, Children's Department.

Correspondence to: Children's Officer, County Offices, Matlock, Derbyshire.
Description: A study of all new cases over a limited period which need support for a longer period than three months.
Proposed completion date: 1968/69.

DERBYSHIRE COUNTY COUNCIL EDUCATION AND CHILDREN'S DEPARTMENT. Study of the possible joint use of Reception Centres for educational as well as child care purposes.

Correspondence to: Children's Officer, County Offices, Matlock, Derbyshire.
Description of aim: To discover whether it is possible to make the Reception Centre available to the Education Department for observation of difficult cases (mainly from Child Guidance Clinics), without the need for a separate organisation or for taking the children into care. This will involve either enlarging the present facilities or duplicating them in another part of the county.
Proposed completion date: Uncertain.

DEVON COUNTY COUNCIL CHILDREN'S DEPARTMENT. Survey of the history, characteristics and performance of children in care of the Devon County Council who reached the age of 18 between 1 April 1954 and 1 April 1964.

Correspondence to: K. Brill, Town Hall, Friern Barnet, London, N.11.
Description: Questionnaires have been completed for several hundred boys and girls, covering the following aspects: history; assessment of intelligence where available; assessment of educational performance where available; number of changes in care; extent to which siblings were able to remain together; physical, mental or emotional handicaps; jobs held between the ages of 15 and 18, assessment of emotional stability at 15 and at 18.
Proposed completion date: Not known, but sampling has been completed.

EGAN, D. Survey of illegitimate children.

Correspondence to: Dr Dorothy Egan, Principal Medical Officer, Greater London Council, County Hall, London.
Description: Study of an unselected sample of illegitimate children.
Proposed completion date: 1967.

HOME OFFICE RESEARCH UNIT. The work of Child Care Officers: a time-study.

Sponsor: Undertaken at the request of the working party set up by the Advisory Council on Child Care.

Correspondence to: Home Office Research Unit, Horseferry House, Dean Ryle Street, London, S.W.1.
Description: The study is designed to discover the number of hours worked by Child Care Officers, the allocation of working time between casework, travelling and administration, and in part, to provide an estimate of the relative amount of time taken up by different types of case. Officers in 9 Local Authorities have completed time sheets with details of their work.
Proposed completion date: 1967.

JONES, R. In care at adolescence.

Sponsor: University of Birmingham.
Correspondence to: R. Jones, Children's Officer, Swansea Children's Department, Metropole Chambers, Wind Street, Swansea.
Description: A follow-up study of the current adjustment of young adults who were in care.
Proposed completion date: Uncertain.

MIDDLETON, N. G. The social treatment of the child 1896–1939.

Sponsor: Research to be submitted for M.Sc.(Econ.), London School of Economics.
Correspondence to: N. G. Middleton, 'Trunnions', Burgess Wood Grove, Beaconsfield, Bucks.
Description: Social historical study showing the development of the philosophy of child care and the legal provision expressing public attitudes. Mostly based on Parliamentary papers; some interviews and analysis of material.
Proposed completion date: 1968.

NATIONAL BUREAU FOR CO-OPERATION IN CHILD CARE. A pilot study of family advice services.

Sponsor: The Home Office.
Correspondence to: Dr M. L. Kellmer Pringle, The National Bureau for Co-operation in Child Care, Adam House, 1 Fitzroy Square, London, W.1.
Senior Research Officer: Aryeh Leissner.
Description: (*a*) A survey of Family Advice services; (*b*) A more intensive study of three or four services and the setting up of two 'experimental' services. First report published (see p. 261).
Proposed completion date: 1970.

NATIONAL BUREAU FOR CO-OPERATION IN CHILD CARE. National study of children in care.

Sponsor: The Nuffield Foundation.

Correspondence to: Dr M. L. Kellmer Pringle, National Bureau for Co-operation in Child Care, Adam House, 1 Fitzroy Square, London, W.1.
Senior Research Officer: Miss Elisabeth Pugh.
Description: To study a national sample of seven-year-olds who have been at any time of their lives in the care of a Local Authority or Voluntary Society. Particulars of the children's circumstances before reception into care and of the method of substitute care will be obtained. This information will be related to data from the Perinatal Mortality Survey and the National Child Development Study about the children's subsequent educational, social and physical development.
Proposed completion date: 1968.

SCHAFFER, H. R. The family background of children in care.
Sponsor: Scottish Education Department.
Correspondence to: Dr H. R. Schaffer, Department of Psychology, University of Strathclyde, Glasgow, C.1.
Description: An investigation of families sending their children into care when the mother has to go into hospital for a confinement. The social and psychological characteristics of these families will be ascertained and related to a control group of families who are able to make private arrangements for the care of their children in the same circumstances.
Proposed completion date: 1967.

SHAPIRO, P. A study of large families.
Sponsor: Social Study Department, University of Birmingham.
Correspondence to: Mrs P. Shapiro, 1 Ampton Road, Edgbaston, Birmingham 15.
Description: A comparison of a sample of 'problem' families with a group of coping families of similar size to clarify the factors leading to child neglect.

TIZARD, J. Medical and educational survey: Isle of Wight.
Sponsor: Medical Research Council and Department of Education and Science, London.
Correspondence to: Professor J. Tizard, University of London Institute of Education, 57 Gordon Square, London, W.C.1.
Description: Study of methods of specific remedial educational treatment, inter-relation between handicaps, children referred to psychiatric services, brought before the Court, or taken into care.
Proposed completion date: 1967.

TIZARD, J. Child welfare project.
Sponsor: Association for the Aid of Crippled Children (U.S.A.).
Principal Research Officers: Miss Norma V. Raynes, Roy D. King, and William Yule.
Correspondence to: Professor J. Tizard, University of London Institute of Education, 57 Gordon Square, London, W.C.1.
Description: A comparative study of children in hospitals and in residential Homes. Paper containing interim findings available at the National Bureau for Co-operation in Child Care; see also p. 280.
Proposed completion date: 1968.

WALTON, R. J. Developments in residential child care since 1900.
Sponsor: University of Manchester.
Correspondence to: R. J. Walton, Department of Social Administration, University of Manchester, Dover Street, Manchester 13.
Description: To be submitted for an M.A. degree.
Proposed completion date: 1967.

WOODINGS, R. B. Survey of children in care committed to Approved Schools.
Sponsor: Children's Department, Nottingham.
Correspondence to: R. B. Woodings, Children's Officer, Children's Department, 3–5 Shakespeare Villas, Nottingham.
Description: A local survey of progress of all children committed to care during the past 10 years, with special attention to those later committed as offenders.
Proposed completion date: 1967.

8. Annotated list of ongoing research projects in the United States

Projects are presented in alphabetical order. Details are generally taken from Bulletins issued by the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, but in most cases it has not been possible to verify them with the principal investigators.

FANSHEL, D. Child Welfare research programme.

Principal investigator: Professor David Fanshel, Director, Child Welfare Research Program, Columbia University School of Social Work, New York, N.Y. 10028.

Description: Longitudinal study of a cohort of 750 children coming into care in New York City. Data on intelligence, behaviour, adjustment and family relationships will be gathered at entry and for at least 5 years after. Ratings, psychological tests and interviews with parents, foster parents, social workers, teachers, etc. will be used. Progress report available at N.B.C.C.C.

Proposed completion date: Indefinite.

LEWIS, H. Study of neglected and abused children after protective service.

Sponsor: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, D.C.

Project director: Harold Lewis, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia.

Proposed completion date: 1967.

MELTZER, J. The extent and adequacy of the existing physical plant, under social work auspices, for the group care of children.

Sponsor: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, D.C.

Project director: Donnell M. Pappenfort, Center for Urban Studies, University of Chicago, East 57th and South Shore Drive, Chicago, Illinois.

Description: A national study of the physical facilities housing children's institutions and an estimation of future needs for rebuilding, etc. A survey of facilities in each State will be made, and a closer study of a sample of institutions. Interim findings available at N.B.C.C.C.

PENNER, G. L. and SPASSER, M. J. A protective services centre to provide a range of services for families in which children are neglected or abused.

Sponsor: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, D.C.
Project directors: G. Lewis Penner and Marion J. Spasser, Juvenile Protective Association, Chicago, Illinois.
Proposed completion date: 1970.

POLANSKY, N. A. Social work processes in rural child welfare service.

Sponsor: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, D.C.
Project director: Norman A. Polansky, University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia.
Proposed completion date: 1967.

RIPPLE, L. Child welfare program of research.

Co-operating groups: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, D.C.
Correspondence to: Lilian Ripple, Ph.D., Director, Research Center, School of Social Service Administration, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois, 60637.
Description: An investigation of theory and practice in child care.
Proposed completion date: 1969.

ROSENHEIM, M. K. and WADE, A. D. An investigation of legal and social work practice in termination of parental rights.

Sponsor: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, D.C.
Project directors: Margaret K. Rosenheim and Alan D. Wade, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois.
Proposed completion date: 1967.

SKEELS, H., with L. W. Schenke and M. Skodak. Follow-up studies of children from institutions.

Sponsor: National Institute of Mental Health, Washington, D.C.
Principal investigator: Harold M. Skeels, Chief, Special Program Development Section, Community Research and Services Branch, National Institute of Mental Health.
Description: Three studies of adults aged 25–30 who were formerly in substitute care and the subject of earlier papers by the author and his associates (*Journal of Genetic Psychology*, September 1949; *Journal of*

Psychoasthenics, 1938/9, **44**, 1; *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, June 1948). Project (a) is a study of adopted persons; project (b) a study of adults diagnosed as mentally retarded in childhood and brought up in two very different institutions; project (c) a study of adopted persons whose mothers were mentally retarded. Interim findings reported in *New Society*, 17 February 1966, **177**, 21, and in *Children*, January 1965, **12**, no. 1, 33–4.

WHITE, B. L., HELD, R. M., BREEN, M. and WOLFF, P. H. The process of adaptation in the human infant in the first six months of life.

Co-operating groups: Foundations' Fund for Research in Psychiatry.
Principal investigators: Burton L. White, Ph.D., Research Associate, Richard M. Held, Ph.D., Chairman, and Michael Breen, Graduate Student, Department of Psychology, Brandeis University, Waltham, Mass.; Peter H. Wolff, M.D., Consultant, Judge Baker Child Guidance Clinic, Boston, Mass.
Description: An investigation of the early development of institutionally-reared infants, using controlled observations and experimental techniques.
Proposed completion date: 1967.

YARROW, L. J. and GOODWIN, M. S. Effects on personality development of separation from a temporary mother-figure during infancy.

Principal investigators: Leon J. Yarrow, Ph.D., and Marion S. Goodwin, M.A., Division of Research, Children's Bureau, Welfare Administration, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, D.C.
Description: An examination of the extent to which separation from a foster mother, followed by the care of an adoptive mother, constitutes a traumatic event, and whether a critical age exists when maternal deprivation is especially detrimental. Preliminary account in *Review of Child Development Research* (1964), eds. Hoffman, M. L. and W. L., Russell Sage Foundation, Vol. 1, Chapter 2, pp. 89–130.

ZOBER, E. The division of casework responsibility as a method of working with emotionally disturbed children in foster care.

Sponsor: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, D.C.
Project director: Edith Zober, Iowa Children's Home Society, Des Moines, Iowa.
Proposed completion date: 1967.

Appendix I

Location of journals and periodicals

Note. The following list is not an exhaustive guide to the whereabouts of periodicals but a record of where a journal has been studied for the purpose of this report and can serve as a starting point as to availability. Local libraries may be able to assist further on the basis of this information. Foreign journals and periodicals can usually be obtained through the inter-library loan system.

Some of the journals have also been subscribed to by the N.B.C.C.C. since 1963 and can be borrowed from the Bureau's library. A list of these journals can be obtained from the Bureau, by sending a foolscap stamped addressed envelope together with 2*s.* to the National Bureau for Cooperation in Child Care, Adam House, 1 Fitzroy Square, London, W. 1.

Acta Psychologica (Amsterdam). University of London Library.
American Journal of Orthopsychiatry (U.S.A.). University of London Library.
American Psychologist (U.S.A.). University of London Library.
British Journal of Medical Psychology (U.K.). University of London Library.
British Journal of Psychiatric Social Work (U.K.) University of London Library.
British Medical Journal (U.K.). University of London Library.
Case Conference (U.K.). London School of Economics.
Child Care (U.K.). Institute of Education, London University.
Child Development (U.S.A.). Institute of Education, London University.
Children (U.S.A.). British Museum.
Child Welfare (U.S.A.). London School of Economics.
Courrier (Paris). Royal Society of Medicine.
Human Relations (U.K.). University of London Library.
International Child Welfare Review (Geneva). British Museum; Royal Society of Medicine.
Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry (U.K. and U.S.A.). Institute of Education, London University.
Journal of Genetic Psychology (U.S.A.). University of London Library.
Journal of Mental Science (after 1962 continued as the *British Journal of Psychiatry*) (U.K.). University of London Library.
Journal of Nervous and Mental Diseases (U.S.A.). University of London Library.
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Appendix II

Postal questionnaire

REVIEW OF BOTH COMPLETED AND ONGOING SURVEYS, RESEARCH AND OTHER INVESTIGATIONS, FROM 1948 ONWARDS

Please return as soon as possible to:
The Director, The National Bureau for Co-operation in Child Care,
Adam House, 1 Fitzroy Square, London, W. 1.

1. Title of Study
2. Organisation(s) sponsoring research

   Address(es)
3. Name(s) and address(es) of persons to whom correspondence should be sent
4. Name of Principal Research Officer carrying out the research (if other than 3 above)
5. Brief description of aim and scope to amplify title
6. Please state proposed date of completion.
7. If finished, please give date of completion
8. If published, please give details
9. If no publication is planned, please indicate whether data and results will be available (Please tick below)
   (a) on postal loan (b) on your premises (c) if neither, please specify
   Please give address if different from (2) above
10. If this work is being submitted for a qualification, please give details
11. Date Signed
    Position
    Address

Appendix III

Guide for research abstracts

Notes. 1. Typing will be appreciated.
2. When abstracting, please use *all* the headings given on this key. If unable to complete a section or sub-section, please state reason, e.g. not known, not applicable.

I. AUTHORS, TITLE AND SPONSORSHIP OF RESEARCH
1. Author(s) of Study
2. Full Title of Study
3. Sponsorship of research and financial backing (where stated)

II. SCOPE AND PURPOSE OF INVESTIGATION
Include year of commencement and duration of study.

III. THEORETICAL ORIENTATION
1. Underlying assumptions
   (*a*) If stated explicitly
   (*b*) If clearly implied
2. State of hypothesis/es

IV. AUTHOR'S REVIEW OF LITERATURE
1. Span of period under review (state earliest author quoted)
2. Type of review. Specify whether:
   (*a*) Detailed (e.g. all relevant details given together with summary of findings)
   (*b*) Fairly comprehensive (e.g. some information on nature of research reviewed)
   (*c*) Brief or non-existent (e.g. only names of authors are mentioned). If review is brief, do *authors* state this to be due to scarcity of work done in this field?
   (*d*) Any other information on review of literature.

V. SAMPLE (Refer to the various conditions which determined the *selection* of the sample. Exclude data obtained as a result of the investigation)
1. Nature of sample
2. Size of sample

3. Geographical area research carried out in
4. Sex distribution
5. Age range
6. Race/nationality
7. Religion
8. Scholastic record
9. Test results (psychological test and other objective records)
10. Health record
    (*a*) Physical health
    (*b*) Mental health aspects
11. Socio-economic status
    (*a*) Family's social background
    (*b*) occupation of parents
        — natural parents
        — substitute parents
        — institutional staff
12. Family structure (e.g. no. of other children, etc.)
13. Type of home, school or other institution mentioned relating to the child
14. Age placed into substitute care:
    — adoption
    — foster care
    — residential care
15. Reasons for placement
16. Reasons for change of placement
17. Organisations concerned with the sample, e.g.
    — adoption agencies
    — institutions
    — any other
18. Any other information on the sample

VI. METHODOLOGY

1. *Method of obtaining and recording information*
    (*a*) Name of specific tests used
    (*b*) Type of questionnaire used—structured/unstructured
    (*c*) State whether specimens of tests, questionnaires, etc. available in text, and if not, whether they are available elsewhere
    (*d*) Nature of interviewing techniques
    (*e*) Use of case history material and follow-up studies
    (*f*) Control-experiment design
    (*g*) Any other information on methodology
2. *Methods of analysis of data*
    (*a*) Purely qualitative or descriptive
    (*b*) Some qualitative or descriptive evaluation
    (*c*) Some quantification—please specify (e.g. numbers, percentages)
    (*d*) Variety of statistical techniques—please specify (e.g. means, chi-square, correlations, etc.)

VII. FINDINGS

1. Author's summary of findings
2. Testing of stated hypothesis

VIII. AUTHOR'S DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

IX. RECOMMENDATIONS
1. Research
2. Policy
3. Administration
4. Other theoretical or practical recommendations

X. OTHER DETAILS Any information not covered in above sections

XI. SOURCE OF ABSTRACT
State whether abstract derived from
(*a*) Original material
(*b*) Secondary source (e.g. reviewed by another author. State name if given and where review found)
(*c*) Personal communication. (State name of informant)

XII. SUMMARY OF ABSTRACT WHERE OBTAINED FROM SECONDARY SOURCE

Composite bibliography and index

All entries from Sections 4 and 5 are here arranged in alphabetical order. At the end of each entry the relevant section and page references are given in square brackets.

ABST. = Abstracts of Completed Research Projects
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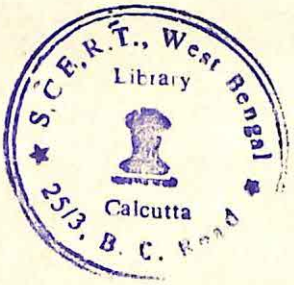

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